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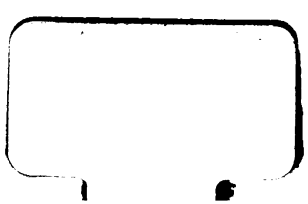

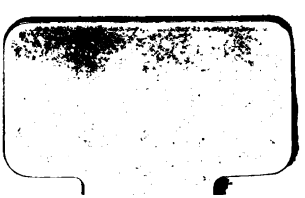

THE

MANUAL OF GEOGRAPHY,

PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL.

PROFUSELY ILLUSTRATED.

For the Use of Schools and Families.

BY

EDWARD FARR, F.S.A.,

Author of "Continuation of Hume and Smollett's History of England;" "The Collegiate, School, and Family History of England;" "Bible Biography;" "Ancient History," &c., &c.

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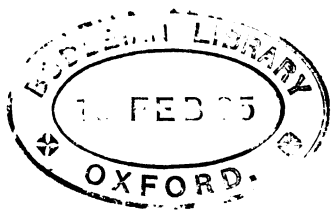
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PREFACE.

It has been well remarked that "Geography is coeval with History;" and that as soon as men began to apply themselves to the explanation of the changes in the political condition of nations, and the difference in civilization observed in nations lying near one another, they were obliged to look to the particular character of the countries inhabited by those nations whose history it was their object to investigate. These truths are forcibly illustrated in the works of Herodotus: he was the father of Geography, as well as of History. It was not sufficient for him to relate the deeds of a people: he also described the country in which the people of whom he wrote lived.

Since the days of Herodotus, Geography, as a science, has vastly increased in importance. History itself has not had more able investigators. Men of enlarged minds have traversed the globe to discover its varied physical peculiarities, and to depict the political condition of the nations by which it is inhabited. For this lofty purpose they have fearlessly penetrated the inhospitable desert; have traversed regions where winter holds its everlasting

reign; and have braved the scorching heats of the torrid zone. Few are the spots of earth which have not been explored by them,—few the countries with which we are not acquainted through their noble exertions.

The object of the following pages is to lay before the young a brief view of the earth and its inhabitants, as thus unfolded by geographers. It has not been deemed sufficient to relate the position of the different countries of which it consists; for such information may be likened to dry bones without life. The young of the present age require more than this; and hence we have embraced in this work all topics appertaining to Geography, whether physical or political. In one word, it depicts the world as it is, in all its living realities; and we have a confident hope that our labours will not be in vain: that the minds of our young readers will be greatly enlarged by the contents of its pages. In order to render the work more useful, we have appended a series of questions for examination, which may be used by both parents and teachers with advantage.

The present edition embraces the recent changes in the Political Geography of Southern Europe, as well as many other corrections physical and statistical.

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A

MANUAL OF GEOGRAPHY.

Book the First.

THE SYSTEM OF THE UNIVERSE.

THE word "Universe" is generally used to signify the collection of all created things. In modern language, "the world" refers to the earth only, and "the universe" to all stars and planets.

In the sacred history of the creation it is recorded that "God made lights in the firmament of the heaven, to give light upon the earth: to divide the day from the night, and to be for signs and for seasons, and for days and years. He made the greater light to rule the day, and the lesser light to rule the night: He made the stars also."

These lights are rendered subservient to the great purposes for which they were created, by certain laws of motion. God has not revealed to man what these laws are, and hence various conjectures have been made concerning them. These conjectures are called "systems."

Four systems have been devised by the learned; namely, the Pythagorean, or Copernican; the Ptolemaic; the Tychonic; and the Newtonian, or the solar, or planetary system. This last system was taught by Pythagoras and Philolaus, revised by Copernicus, and at length was firmly established by our own celebrated countryman, Sir Isaac Newton.

The great principle on which the Solar System rests is Gravity; or that power by which all the planets are drawn to the centre of their respective orbits. This centre is the Sun, around which revolve in regular periods those opaque bodies which derive their light from him, and are called Planets. The nearest planet to the Sun is Mer-

cury; then follow successively, Venus, the Earth, Mars, the Asteroides, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, and last of all, Neptune.

These planets are called primary, from their revolving round the Sun as their centre. Their revolutions round the Sun vary according to the distances at which they are placed from that orb. Thus the Earth, which is 95,000,000 of miles from the Sun, revolves round it in 365¼ days; while Neptune, which is distant 2,864,000,000, takes 59,927½ days to perform its revolution.

All these planets are called primary; other planets move round the primary planets, and these are called secondary. Thus the Earth is attended with the Moon, Saturn with seven, Jupiter with four, and Uranus with six secondary planets. Every planet, however, whether primary or secondary, derives its light from the great luminary of our system—the Sun.

Besides these planets, there are other celestial lights, called Comets, which occasionally traverse our system; appearing suddenly, and after having moved like planets in eccentric orbits, as suddenly disappearing, only to return after long periods of time.

> "Hast thou ne'er seen the comet's flaming light?
> Th' illustrious stranger passing, terror sheds
> On gazing nations from his fiery train
> Of length enormous; takes his ample round
> Through depths of ether; coasts unnumber'd worlds
> Of more than solar glory; doubles wide
> Heaven's mighty cape; and then revisits earth,
> From the long travel of a thousand years."—YOUNG.

Vast and magnificent, however, as the Solar System seems to the human mind, it forms but a small portion of the infinite regions of space. Stars surround it on all sides, and are at such a remote distance from it as far to exceed finite calculation. Thus one star of the second magnitude, in the constellation Draco, is supposed to be 400,000 times more distant from us than the Sun. Each of these stars is supposed to be a separate sun of itself, and to be the centre of a system like our own; having planets harmoniously revolving around it. These are

called Fixed Stars; there are others called Wandering Stars or planets; and others, which are scarcely visible to the naked eye, and which, from their exhibiting a dim and cloudy light, are termed "Nebulæ." These last, when seen through a telescope, appear only like dusky specks or clouds, but they are supposed to be beautifully arranged clusters of stars, each cluster being composed of several thousand distinct luminous bodies. They are similar in their nature to the Milky Way—

"Which nightly as a circling zone thou seest,
Powder'd with stars."

Astronomers have arranged the fixed stars under various figures called constellations, and have given to these constellations the names and figures of various personages celebrated in antiquity, and even of many animals, or of inanimate bodies, as instruments and machines. Ptolemy enumerated forty-eight constellations; on modern globes there are about seventy. Those constellations which surround the ecliptic, or annual path of the Sun, and which are more important than the others, are twelve in number. These constellations being fancied to represent certain things, are called *signs*, and because the things so represented are chiefly animals, the whole tract is termed the Zodiac (from *zo-on*, an animal), and the figures themselves are called the Signs of the Zodiac.

The names of these signs are—Aries, or the ram; Taurus, the bull; Gemini, the twins; Cancer, the crab; Leo, the lion; Virgo, the virgin; Libra, the balance; Scorpio, the scorpion; Sagittarius, the archer; Capricornus, the goat; Aquarius, the water-bearer; Pisces, the fishes.

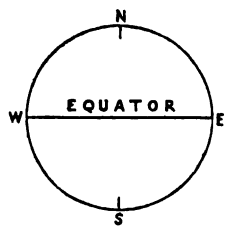
The middle part of the Zodiac is called also the Ecliptic, because an eclipse can only take place when the planets are either in or near this line.

Such is the system of the universe, as unfolded by the science of astronomy: we now proceed to describe that planet in the solar system on which man is destined to exist—the Earth.

The figure of the earth is nearly that of a sphere or globe. Its rotundity has been fully proved by the voyages of celebrated navigators, such as Magellan, Sir Francis Drake, Lord Anson, and Cook, who all at different periods sailed round the world. By steering their course westward they arrived at the exact place whence they departed, which could never have happened had not the Earth been spherical. The Earth's roundness of form is, also, apparent from the circumstances which attend large objects when seen at a distance on the sea. When a ship proceeds to sea, the body of the vessel is first lost sight of, afterwards the rigging, and finally the top of the mast. This is evidently owing to the convexity of the water between the eye and the object; otherwise the largest and most conspicuous part of the vessel would have been the longest visible. The roundness of the Earth's figure may also be observed from the round shadow it reflects upon the Moon when it eclipses that planet; and likewise from the Polar Star, which rises as we travel northward, and sinks as we go southward.

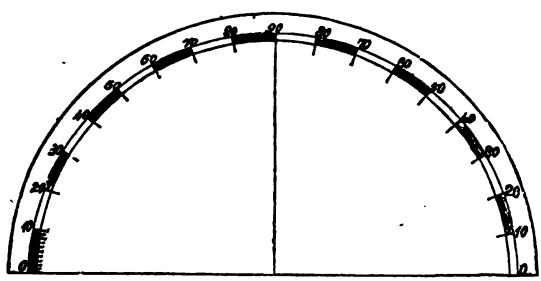
A straight line passing through the Earth's centre from north to south is called its Axis, because on it the Earth turns round once every twenty-four hours. The extremities of this axis are named the North and South Poles. It is this daily revolution of the Earth on its axis which produces day and night, and which has given rise to the popular opinion that the sun, planets, and stars move round it. But this diurnal motion of the Earth must not be confounded with its annual revolution in its orbit round the Sun; for the diurnal motion only produces day and night, while its annual motion not only causes the different lengths of day and night, but the return of the different seasons of Spring, Summer, Autumn, and Winter.

It has been mentioned that the two extremities of the Earth are called its poles. Between these poles every point of the Earth by its diurnal rotation describes a circle. The greatest circle is that which is midway between the poles, and what is called the Equator, from the circumstance that



when the Sun is in the plane of it, and then only, it is equal day and night all over the world. If the equator ran exactly under the ecliptic of the heavens, day and night would always be equal; but as the equator crosses the ecliptic, it is only equal day and night twice in the year; namely, when the Sun appears in the first point of Aries, and the first of Libra. These points are called the Equinoctial Points; and the times of the year answering to them are the Vernal and Autumnal Equinoxes; the first taking place in Spring, the other in Autumn.

Besides the Great Circle described by the Earth in its diurnal rotation, there are the two Tropics, and the two Polar Circles. The two Tropics are those circles on the Earth over which the Sun appears directly to pass when at



SEMICIRCLE.

the greatest distance, namely, 23½ degrees from the equator northward and southward. The two polar circles, north and south, are so called because they are near to the two poles of the Earth, from which they are equally distant as the tropics are from the equator. The polar circles bound those portions of the Earth where it is continuous day or night,—a phenomenon that has often been witnessed by enterprising travellers.

The moon is a secondary planet, moving round the Earth, and deriving all her light from the Sun. Her revolution round the Earth is accomplished in 29 days 12½ hours, which is called the Moon's synodical month. This month is principally used in the computation of time.

The Earth and Moon are both opaque bodies. All the light they enjoy is from the Sun. This is made manifest by eclipses. Whenever the Moon passes between the Earth and the Sun in such a manner as to hinder the rays of the latter from falling on the Earth, then the Sun's rays are hidden from the inhabitants of the Earth; and whenever the Moon passes from behind the Earth, so as to hinder the rays of the Sun from falling on the Moon, then the Moon is not visible to man. An eclipse of the Sun only takes place at the change of the Moon, when the Moon is between the Sun and the Earth; and an eclipse of the Moon can only occur when the Moon is at its full, and when the Earth is between that planet and the Sun.

As a phenomenon affecting the Earth, brief notice must be taken of the tides. The word "tide" may be explained by a daily, regular, and periodical rising and falling of the waters twice a-day. The tides are caused chiefly by the attraction of the Moon, but partly by that of the Sun likewise. At the new and full Moons, the tides rise much higher than at any other periods; these are called spring-tides. When the Moon is in the second and last quarter, the tides are lower and slower; these are called neap-tides. In different parts of the Earth the tides rise to different heights; thus in the Bristol Channel they rise above forty feet, and on the eastern coast of North America more than fifty feet: their average height, however, is less than twenty feet.

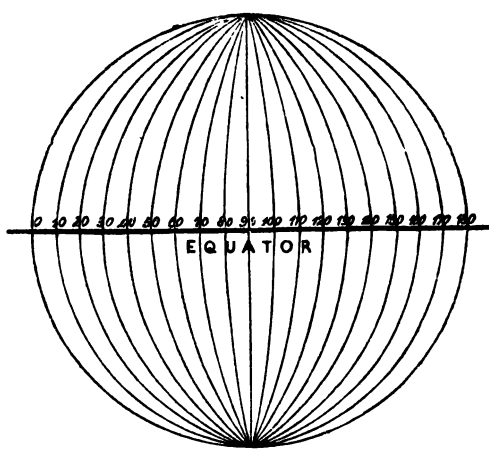
These are the leading features of the Solar System, and of the Earth on which we live; and

> "These are thy glorious works, Parent of good,
> Almighty! Thine this universal frame,
> Thus wondrous fair: Thyself how wondrous then,
> Unspeakable! who sit'st above the heavens,
> To us invisible or dimly seen
> In these thy lowest works; yet these declare
> Thy goodness beyond thought, and power divine."—MILTON.

Book the Second.

THE SCIENCE OF GEOGRAPHY.

GEOGRAPHY is a science, the general object of which is to describe the surface of our globe. The term is derived from the Greek words, γῆ (ge), the earth, and γράφω (grapho), to describe. Strictly speaking, geography denotes the description of the earth only, and is distinguished from hydrography, which refers to the description of the sea. As, however, earth and sea are generally considered the great component parts of the terraqueous globe, a description of them both is usually included in the term geography.

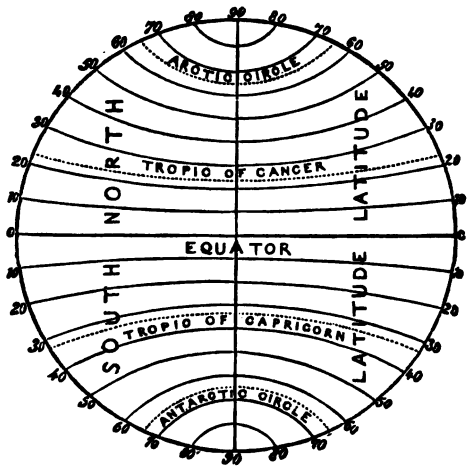


LONGITUDE.

The situation of places north or south, is determined by their latitude; and east or west, by their longitude. These distances are reckoned in degrees and minutes. Each

degree is subdivided into sixty minutes, and each minute into sixty seconds.

The latitude of a place is its distance from the equator, either north or south; and the longitude of a place is its distance from a given spot, measured either on the equator or on some circle parallel to it, east or west. The meridian

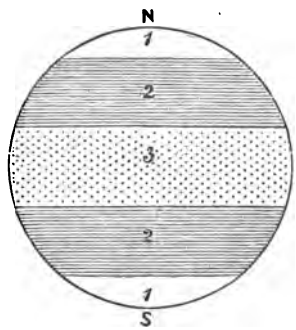


of this spot is called the first meridian; and modern nations usually adopt the capitals of their own countries as first meridians. Thus the English reckon their longitude from the Royal Observatory of Greenwich, and the French, from Paris. A place is in east longitude when it is east of the first meridian; and in west longitude when it is west of it. Thus Rome is east, and Lisbon west of Greenwich.

As latitude points to situations north and south, its degrees are marked on the sides of a map; and as longitude refers to situations east or west, its degrees are marked at the top and bottom of a map. When the degrees of latitude

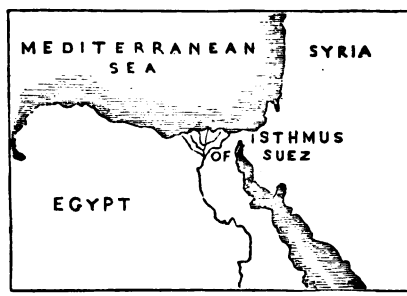
increase upwards, the places are in north latitude; when downwards, they are in south latitude. When the degrees of longitude increase to the right hand, the places are in east, and when to the left hand, they are in west longitude.

With respect to the various degrees of heat and cold, the earth is divided into five zones or belts: one torrid, two temperate, and two frigid zones. The torrid zone lies on each side of the equator, extending to the tropics of Cancer and of Capricorn; the two temperate zones lie between the tropics and the polar circles; and the two frigid zones lie between the polar circles and the poles. The earth is likewise divided into climates. A climate is that space of the earth where the longest day of one place exceeds the longest day of another by half an hour. Geographers reckon twenty-four climates between the equator and polar circles.

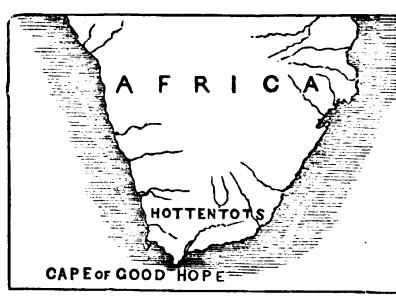


As before mentioned, the terraqueous globe consists of two great component parts—the earth or land, and sea or water. These two are again subdivided into smaller parts.

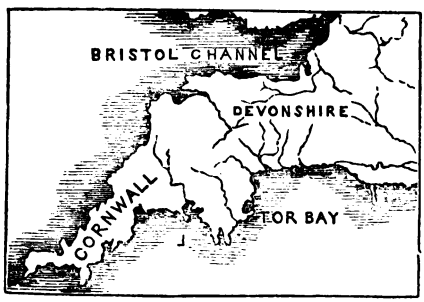
A continent is a vast tract of land containing many countries, as that of Europe or America. An island is a smaller tract of land surrounded with water, as the island of Great Britain. A peninsula is a tract of land nearly



but not wholly surrounded by water. An isthmus is a neck of land connecting a peninsula with the neighbouring continent, and sometimes two continents together. A cape

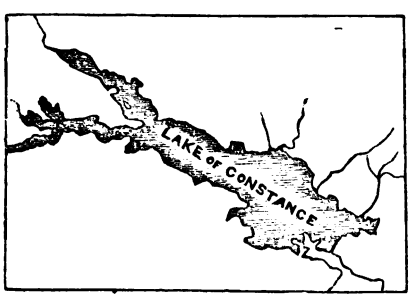


or promontory is an eminence shooting out into the sea, the point or extremity of which is called a headland. Where the land rises above the level of the country, it is called a hill or mountain; and the low ground between two mountains is termed a valley. If a mountain throws out fire, it is called a volcano, or burning mountain, as



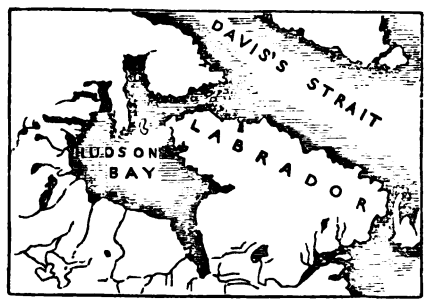
PROMONTORY.

Mount Ætna, and Mount Vesuvius. When a valley is very narrow, so as not to allow of its being crossed without difficulty, it is termed a pass. A river is a body of water flowing from elevated ground into the sea; and the place where it pours from the earth is called its source, or springs. A lake is a collection of waters surrounded by

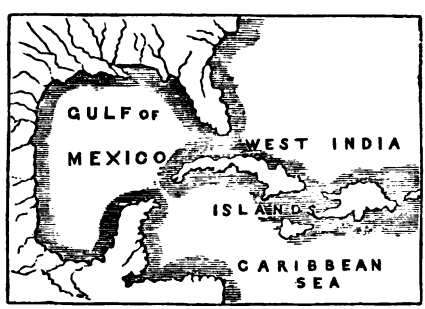


land, and having no communication with the sea except by a river or subterraneous passage.

The ocean is the wide open part of the sea, which surrounds the land on all sides, and extends from pole to pole. It is divided into several parts; as the Atlantic

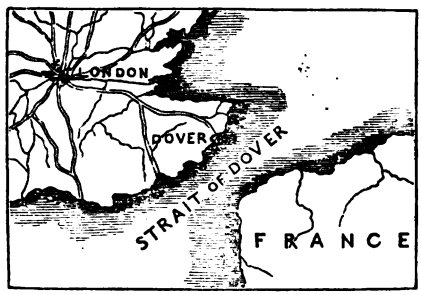


Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, the Indian Ocean, the Southern or Antarctic Ocean, and the Northern or Arctic Ocean. A sea is a smaller collection of water nearly surrounded by land, as the Mediterranean Sea and the Black Sea. A gulf or bay is a portion of the sea running some distance into the land; and a strait is a narrow channel connecting



two seas together, or a sea with the ocean. A channel is a long passage of water leading from one sea to another; and a frith is a narrow sea which receives some extensive river.

The earth is now usually divided into five great portions—Europe, Asia, Africa, America, and Australasia. Europe is



the smallest division of the world; but, for the civilization of its inhabitants, it is entitled to the greatest attention. Asia is the most extensive and populous division; and it is particularly distinguished by being the scene of man's creation and redemption. America is the next largest division of the earth; and from its being discovered in modern times, by Columbus, it is frequently called the New World. Africa is estimated to contain about one-eighth part of the globe, but, from its being situated in the torrid zone, the greater portion of it is almost uninhabitable. Australasia is the least important division of the earth; but some of its countries, as Australia and New South Wales, are rising into greatness by the enterprise of emigrants, who are continually landing on their shores, from various countries, and especially from England, Scotland, and Ireland.

Book the Third.

CHAPTER I.

EUROPE.

SECTION I.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

EUROPE is one of the great divisions of the globe. It forms the north-western part of the old continent, of which it occupies a little more than two-seventeenths. The surface of Europe contains about 3,900,000 square miles.

Its name, "Europe," is derived from a small district near the Hellespont. According to the mythology of the poets, it was derived from Europa, the daughter of Agenor, king of Tyre, whom Jupiter, under the influence of love, having assumed the shape of a bull, carried off across the sea into Crete.

Europe is separated from America by the North Atlantic Ocean, and from Africa by the Mediterranean Sea. The boundary line which divides Europe from Asia is only in part indicated by nature. This line runs through the Archipelago, the Straits of the Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmora, and the Straits of Constantinople, to the Black Sea. Thus far all geographers agree; but they differ as to the remaining part of the boundary line. The most scientific geographers, however, make it traverse the Black Sea to the western extremity of Mount Caucasus, south of Anapa, and from thence to run along the range, east-south-east, to its eastern extremity, where it reaches the Caspian Sea at Soomgait. From Soomgait it runs through

the Caspian Sea, which it leaves at the mouth of the river Ural, whose course it follows up to its sources in the Uralian mountains, which mountains, with the river Kara, constitute the remainder of this boundary line.

The most northern part of Europe is Cape Nord Kyn; the most southern, Punta de Tarifa, in Spain; the most western, Cape Rocca; and the most eastern, the Uralian mountains. Some of the islands, however, extend farther south and west than the continent.

Nearly two-thirds of the surface of Europe consist of an immense plain; the remainder is partly mountainous and partly hilly. The plain occupies the east part of the continent, and the hilly and mountainous countries extend along its western and southern shores. The great plain occupies about 2,500,000 square miles; the South European mountain region 1,100,000, and the Scandinavian mountain system about 300,000 square miles.

The principal mountains of Europe are the Pyrenees, which separate Spain from France, and stretching across the isthmus, divide the two countries, from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mediterranean Sea. The loftiest range of mountains is that formed by the Alps, which divides Italy from France, Switzerland, and Germany; and, sweeping round from the Mediterranean, through Austria and Turkey, extends to the shores of the Black Sea. In Turkey the Alps assume the name of Hæmus or Balkan. The chain of the Pindus is a branch of the Hæmus, which runs between the Archipelago and the Ionian Islands, and finally terminates in Sunium, to the south of Athens. The Apennines traverse the whole of Italy, from the foot of the Alps on the borders of France, and the shores of the Mediterranean Sea, to the southernmost part of the country opposite Sicily. The only other mountains of importance are the Carpathian range, which is connected with the Vosges Mountains and Hartz Mountains of Germany; and the Sevo Mons, now called Kœlen, or Fiell, which runs north and south through Scandinavia, parallel with its western coast, and separates Sweden from Norway.

The principal rivers in Europe are the Volga, flowing into the Caspian Sea; the Petchora, the Mezene, the Northern Dwina, and the Onega, which flow northward into the Arctic Ocean, or its inlet the White Sea; the Neva, the Southern Dwina, the Niemen, the Vistula and the Oder, which flow into the Baltic; the Elbe, the Weser, the Rhine and the Scheldt, which flow into the German Ocean; the Seine, the Loire, the Garonne, the Minho, the Douro, the Tagus, the Guadiana and the Guadalquivir, which flow into the Atlantic Ocean; the Seguro, the Ebro, the Rhone and the Po, which flow into the Mediterranean; and the Danube, the Dneister, the Dnieper, and the Don, which flow into the Black Sea and Sea of Azof. Among the most important rivers of England are the Thames, and the Severn. In Scotland, the Clyde. In Ireland, the most important is the Shannon.

The chief lakes of Europe are, Lakes Ladoga, Onega, Wener, Wetter, Geneva, Constance, and Balaton.

The minerals of Europe chiefly consist of iron, copper, tin, lead, zinc, coal and salt; all of which abound in our own island. Gold and silver are found in small quantities.

The plants of Europe consist of every variety, except those belonging to the torrid zone or the warmest regions of the temperate zone. In its most southern limits its botany exhibits a strong resemblance to the vegetation of Africa and the adjacent islands. Thus in Portugal, the laurel seems almost identical with the hixa of the Canaries; and the sugar-cane is cultivated at Avola. In the parallel of the south of France, however, a marked change occurs in vegetation; most of the southern forms of vegetation either disappear or become uncommon. Still further north, the vine begins to languish, and its place is occupied by broad plains of wheat and other corn. Orange-trees and myrtles here give place to the hardy trees of England, such as the elm, the oak, the beech, and the poplar tree. In the more northern districts of the continent even these disappear; the aspen, bird-cherry, birch, lime, alder,

juniper, spruce-fir and pine, are the principal trees that remain, and the corn plants are barley and oats.

The zoology of Europe does not possess much interest from the number, size, or peculiarity of its animals; but this is in some measure compensated by the intimate acquaintance which we possess with the manners and habits of many of the smaller species. The only formidable beasts of prey found on our continent, are the bear, the wolf, and the lynx. Among the mountains of the south are found the ibex and the chamois; and species of the deer, the goat, the fox, and the wild boar, are dispersed all over the continent. The chief domestic animals of Europe are the dog, the horse, the ass, the ox, the cat, the reindeer and sheep; some of which are found in every variety. The wild sheep is found in the mountains of Corsica and Sardinia, and some say in Russia; the wild ox is almost extinct and only found in the Polish and Russian forests.

The birds of Europe, however, are much more numerous than the mammalia. Above four hundred species have been described as regular inhabitants of our continent, and there are a great many more occasional visitants. Among the noblest and most formidable birds of central and southern Europe may be mentioned the golden and imperial eagles; the former of which is an inhabitant of the wildest parts of Ireland and Scotland. In the northern or arctic regions, few birds are met with; it is in the warmer latitudes that they chiefly abound. Few of the birds of Europe are remarkable for that brilliancy of plumage which is so splendid a characteristic of the birds of tropical climates; but this is, in many instances, more than compensated for by their sweetness of voice. The nightingale is the best songster in the world; and the melody of the blackbird and thrush is proverbial.

The reptiles of Europe are few, and generally harmless; the common viper is the only venomous serpent. Numerous small lizards are common in the houses of the southern parts, but they are generally not peculiar to Europe. The most remarkable reptile in Europe is the Proteus anguinus,

which somewhat resembles a water-lizard in shape, or an eel with imperfect legs.

Insects are very numerous in Europe; and amongst them are some of the most useful—as the silkworm in the South; and the bee, found in all parts, but abundant in a wild state in the woods of Lithuania. The common gnat is one of the most troublesome: in warm shady places, where there is much stagnant water, it causes almost as much annoyance to man as the mosquito of hot climates. Locusts are found in the south-east.

Many of the fish which frequent the shores of Europe are highly important as articles of food: the herring, the pilchard, the salmon, the cod, the ling and the haddock. may especially be mentioned.

SECTION II.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

EUROPE is divided into empires, kingdoms, and states. The empires are those of France, Russia, Austria, and Turkey. The principal kingdoms are Great Britain, Spain, Portugal, Prussia, Holland, Belgium, Denmark, Sweden, Naples, Hanover, Wurtemberg, Bavaria, Saxony, Sardinia, and Greece. Several other countries have the name of kingdoms, but are only parts of one monarchy: thus the kingdoms of Scotland and Ireland belong to England. Until recently, France was a kingdom; but by recent revolutions it has been changed into an empire. The republics in Europe are those of Switzerland, San Marino, and the Ionian Isles; the latter of which is under the protection of Great Britain.

Germany comprises a great number of states, which are all independent of each other. The Austrian Emperor is at the head of their confederation, and he is acknowledged as their sovereign; but his power is only nominal. There are also several states in Italy; part of which are under the government of the Pope, and are called the Papal Dominions.

The principal cities in Europe are London, Dublin, Paris, Petersburg, Copenhagen, Stockholm, Constantinople, Amsterdam, Brussels, Berlin, Vienna, Lisbon, Madrid, Turin, Rome, and Naples. All these will be noticed in the description of the several countries to which they belong.

CHAPTER II.—RUSSIA.

SECTION I.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE Russian Empire extends over the north-eastern part of Europe, the whole of Northern Asia, and the north-western coast of America. It consists of Russia in Europe; Georgia, Siberia, Kamtschatka, in Asia, and some settlements on the north-west coast of America. Excluding the last-mentioned country, the area of the whole empire is about 7,700,000 square miles. This vast surface may be considered one extensive plain, for, except the Ural mountains, there is not, in the whole extent of the country, an eminence which rises more than 500 feet above the ground. The plains are either covered with bogs, swamps, or forests, or dry and woodless tracts, called *steppes*. These *steppes*, with its majestic rivers, are the two great distinguishing features of Russia.

The principal rivers of this mighty empire in Europe are the Volga, the Ural, the Don, the Dnieper, and the Dneister, all of which flow southward. In the north are the Dwina, Onega, and Petchora. In Asia are the Oby, Irtysh, Yenisei, and Lena, all of which flow northward into the Arctic Ocean. The Volga is the largest river in Europe; its course extends upwards of 2,000 miles; its tributaries, the Oka and Kama, are very large rivers.

The largest lakes of European Russia and the largest in Europe, are those of Ladoga and Onega, north-east of St. Petersburg; those of Asiatic Russia are the Caspian, the Aral, and the Baikal.

Nearly all the Russian rivers are navigable at a very short distance from their sources, and the moderate heights of the elevated tracts which divide the river systems from one another, above the level of the rivers that originate in them, render the country advantageous for making canals.

Peter the Great perceived the value of such a water communication, and he planned nearly all the various canals which have been executed throughout the country. Some of them were even finished in his reign.

The climate of Russia is very various. In all its regions, from the 60th degree of latitude to the northern boundaries of the empire, the weather is very cold and severe. Even at Petersburg the thermometer usually descends to 22 degrees below zero at the end of December, but farther inland, the cold is still greater. The intensity of the cold of Russia may be illustrated by the fact, that on the retreat of Napoleon from Moscow, the greater part of his numerous army perished from its effects. Spring and summer are very brief, and the passage from cold to heat, and from heat to cold, is very rapid. In summer the heat for two or three weeks is great; the thermometer then rises frequently to 90 degrees. The more southern provinces, however, enjoy a milder climate: there the winter, though severe, is short, and the summer is long and hot. The countries bordering on the Baltic and the White Sea have a wet climate, and rain is frequent throughout the year; but this wet climate extends only to the elevated tracts which border on the basin of the Volga, on the north and west.

Russia produces a larger quantity of grain than is required for home consumption. Besides wheat, barley, oats, and rye, in different parts, millet, Indian corn, flax and hemp, are extensively cultivated.

The climate of Russia is not favourable to the growth of fruit trees; with the exception of wild cherries and bad apples, no fruits grow north of 56° north latitude. Kitchen gardens are not much attended to; but potatoes, cabbages, turnips, carrots, and water melons, are extensively grown. Asparagus grows wild in the southern districts, and liquorice thrives luxuriantly on the banks of the Volga.

The forests constitute one of the principal sources of wealth to Russia. Their produce consists of timber, fire-wood, tar, pitch, ashes, pearl-ash, and potash.

Every animal of a domestic nature, except the rabbit, known in England, is found in Russia. Horses are very numerous, as also are black cattle and sheep. Goats are more numerous than in any other part of Europe, and the nomadic tribes which wander about in the steppes keep a large number of camels. Reindeer are also kept in some

LAPLANDERS AND REINDEER.

parts, especially in Lapland, a great portion of which country belongs to Russia; and buffaloes in other parts; but the latter are not very numerous. Fowls, geese, and ducks, are very abundant.

Fishes are plentiful in the rivers as well as in the White and Arctic Seas. The whale, the walrus, narwhal, seal,

WHALE.

dolphins, white-fish, and others, are caught in the Polar Sea. The most important fisheries in Russia are those of the Volga, where many sturgeon are taken, the river Ural, and the Sea of Azof.

Serpents and lizards are only common in the *steppes;* here swarms of locusts abound, which are not less destructive than those of Asia. Among the noxious insects are scorpions, millipedes, and the scorpion spider. Bees are found wild in most of the provinces which have large forests, and they are also reared in some parts by the natives.

Russia is rich in minerals; they consist of gold, silver, platinum, copper, iron, salt, and coal.

This extensive country is inhabited by a great number of nations, differing in language, character, and civilization. All these nations belong either to the Caucasian or the Mongol race. The Caucasian race consists of individuals belonging to Sclavonians, Fins, Turks or Tartars, Germans, Jews, and Greeks. The Mongol race are generally termed Calmucks. They are divided into five tribes, and they chiefly exist in the south-eastern *steppes* of Russia. The Calmucks are the remnant of those which left Russia in 1770 and 1772, at the invitation of the Chinese government, and settled in the plains of Soongaria. In religion, they are Buddhists, and they are the only nation in Europe professing that faith.

SECTION II.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

The chief cities in European Russia are St. Petersburg, its capital, and Moscow; in Russia Proper, Novogorod, Kiow, Archangel, and Riga; in Poland, Warsaw; and in Finland, Abo. St. Petersburg, Moscow, and Warsaw, are the most celebrated in history. Odessa, on the Black Sea, is an important mart for corn.

St. Petersburg is situated at the eastern extremity of the Gulf of Finland, and at the mouth of the river Neva. At first sight it has the most striking appearance of all the capital cities of Europe. As a city, it is the wonderful

creation of the last century. In 1703, it consisted only of fishermen's huts, in the midst of a morass; but it now contains a population of about 500,000 individuals. It

ST. PETERSBURG.

was founded by Peter the Great, and it is said that its foundation cost the lives of 100,000 men, from fatigue and want. It is now the imperial residence.

Moscow, which was formerly the metropolis of Russia, is situate on a spacious plain. It is now of great extent, and before the invasion of Napoleon, in 1812, its appearance was highly romantic and picturesque. Before the French retreated from this city, two-thirds of it were reduced to ashes. No sooner, however, had the French retreated, than the Russians returned, and Moscow rose, like a phœnix, from its ashes. Its public buildings were restored, and it was greatly increased in size and extent.

STATUE OF PETER THE GREAT.

Warsaw, formerly the capital of Poland, is situated on the left bank of the Vistula. Its circumference is ten miles; but there are many gardens and fields in this area. It is now one of the handsomest cities in Europe, adorned with splendid edifices, with broad, well-lighted, and paved streets. It contains about 150,000 inhabitants.

The whole extent of Russia is divided into fifty-four governments. The population of these governments, together with the islands in the Frozen Ocean, the Pacific, and Russian America, is about 62,000,000 souls.

The Government of Russia is an absolute monarchy; the laws depend wholly on the will of the sovereign. The lives and fortunes of his subjects, also, are wholly at his disposal. The succession is hereditary, but the reigning sovereign has the power of appointing his successor.

The commerce of Russia is very extensive and rapidly increasing; its inland trade is chiefly carried on by means of annual fairs, and it is greatly promoted by an extensive system of navigation. The sales at the fair of Nishni-Novogorod amount to from seven to eight millions of pounds sterling in the two months. Its chief exports are wheat, cattle, furs, mats, feathers, flax, hemp, linseed, hemp-seed, oil, tallow, hides, wood, bristles, timber, potash, sail-cloth, metals, linen, cordage, brandy, dried and salt fish, fruits, honey, and coarse woollen cloth. Russia also imports the elegancies and luxuries of life from all quarters of the globe.

FRANCE.

SECTION III.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

France is the most westerly country of Continental Europe, with the exception of the Spanish Peninsula. It is about 660 miles in length, and 615 in breadth, and has a population of about 36,000,000. The country is marked out by natural limits on three of its sides—namely, by the Pyrenean Mountains on the south, by the Atlantic Ocean on the west, by the English Channel and the Netherlands on the north, and partly by the Rhine on the east.

The chief mountains of France are the Alps on its Italian and Swiss, and the Pyrenees on its Spanish border. Brittany, on the north-west, is a hilly country, with extensive heaths, and much resembles Cornwall.

France contains many noble rivers; the principal are the Loire, the Rhone, the Rhine, the Garonne, the Seine, and the Meuse. Other rivers, of secondary importance, are the Allier, Orne, Cher, Indre, Vienne, Charente, and Somme.

The general character of the soil of France is fertility, and its climate, especially in the south, is mild and genial.

France has always been considered one of the most agricultural countries in Europe. It produces corn and fruits in abundance. Its chief productions are wheat, rye, barley, maize, buck-wheat, potatoes, beet-root, flax, and hemp. The hop, tobacco, and madder, and the colza, and rape, for oil, are cultivated in some parts. Esculent roots and table vegetables of every kind are common. Of the fruit trees, which are cultivated on a considerable scale in France, the vine and the mulberry-trees are the most important; the former for the making of wines and brandy, and the latter for feeding the silk-worm. Among other fruits are the orange, lemon, pistachio, plum, apple, pear, chestnut, and walnut. Of forest trees, France has the oak, the cork-tree, the elm, the ash, the beech, the poplar, the larch, the juniper, the wild cherry, and the pine. Box, cornel, maple, and other trees, furnish the cabinet-maker with ornamental wood.

The domestic animals of France are, for the most part, similar to those of Great Britain. Its wild animals in several instances differ. In the Pyrenees the black and brown bear have their haunts; the lynx is found in the recesses of the higher Alps; and the wolf and the wild boar are common in the forests. Other wild animals are the chamois, the wild-goat, the stag, the roebuck, the hare, the rabbit, the marmot, the ermine, the hamster, and different species of the squirrel tribe. Among amphibious animals are the water-rat, desman, and others.

In some parts of France, the rearing of poultry receives great attention. Of birds, the chief songsters and birds of passage are much the same as in England; the hoppoe, and one or two others only are different. The flamingo is found on the shores of the Mediterranean. Game is abundant. It consists of the red and grey partridge, the quail, the ortolan, the beccafico, the pheasant, the woodcock, and the snipe. Wild ducks, plovers, lapwings, and other wild fowl are taken in great numbers on the coasts of the Channel and the Ocean.

Of other animals found in France, the following may be mentioned—namely, the gecko, the viper, the snake, the frog, the tortoise, and the salamander. The bee and the silk-worm are the most valuable insects; the Spanish fly is also numerous, and forms an article for exportation.

The coasts of France abound in fish of various kinds. The herring, mackerel, and pilchard fisheries are the chief objects of attention on the coasts of the Channel and Atlantic; and the tunny and anchovy fisheries on the Mediterranean. The oyster and mussel, with the crab, lobster, and other crustacea are consumed to a considerable extent.

The mineral riches of France are very considerable. They consist of granite, lignite, porphyry, variolites, marble, slate, stone, different clays, gypsum, chalk, sandstone, millstones, and limestone. Of the metals, iron is the most abundant, but silver, gold, lead, copper, antimony, and oxide of manganese are sometimes found. Coal-pits are numerous, and the department of Meurthe contains brine-springs and rock-salt. Mineral springs are universal; more than one hundred and fifty are collected in baths for the reception of patients; others are taken internally, and are also much frequented by invalids.

SECTION IV.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

For administrative, civil, military, judicial, and ecclesiastical purposes, France is divided into eighty-six departments. Each of these departments is under the government

of a prefect, and is subdivided into circuits, each comprehending a certain number of communes, or parishes. The names of the departments are usually derived from some marked natural feature of the country, as a river or chain of mountains; the name of the circuit is taken from its chief town.

The principal cities of France are Paris, Lyons, Marseilles, Bordeaux, Rouen, Versailles, Lille, and Toulouse.

PARIS.

Paris, the metropolis of France, is situated on the river Seine. It is one of the largest and finest cities in Europe, and is second only to London. The city abounds with magnificent buildings, among which may be mentioned the cathedral of Nôtre Dame, the Luxembourg palace, the Louvre, the Palais Royal, the Bourse, the Pantheon, the Mint, the Corn-market, the Tuileries, numerous handsome bridges, and three noted structures of the monumental class—namely, the Colonne Vendôme, the Arc de l'Etoile, and the Colonne de Juillet. The noble buildings of Paris, however, are too numerous to mention; it abounds in grand public institutions and sumptuous edifices, although, in the diffusion of elegance, opulence, comfort, convenience, and cleanliness, it cannot vie with London. Many of its streets are narrow, and some of them very dirty; yet, as the seat of refined luxury, cultivated society, elegant amusements,

and splendour combined with taste, Paris claims the first place in the whole world. There is not a university in Europe more frequented than that of Paris. The city is divided into three parts,—the town, the city, and the university. The town is situated in the north, the city in the middle, and the university in the south. Students of various classes form a considerable portion of the population of Paris; and in the political excitement which preceded and followed the Revolution of 1830, they acted a very considerable and conspicuous part. There is also a large manufacturing population; its manufactures consisting of all the elegancies of life. For the purposes of municipal administration, the city is divided into twelve parts, called Arrondissements, which are subdivided each into four quarters. Each arrondissement has a separate municipality, over which a mayor presides. The city has been the residence of the French monarchs for upwards of eight hundred years. Paris has been the scene of many revolutions, and in the course of its existence has been often captured by foreign armies. There is scarcely a city in the whole world, except Rome, which has undergone so many vicissitudes, and whose streets have been traversed by victorious armies so often as those of Paris.

Lyons is reckoned the second city in France; and it owes its great wealth, splendour, and population, to its rich manufactures of gold and silver stuffs and silks. Marseilles was greatly celebrated in the time of the Romans: Cicero styled it the Athens of Gaul, and Pliny called it the "Mistress of Education." It is now the chief Mediterranean port, and the centre of the Levant trade. Rouen, the capital of Normandy, is noted as the birth-place of Corneille, the celebrated dramatic writer. It is also of great historical note. There it was that the Maid of Orleans was imprisoned by John, Duke of Bedford; and here it was that she was tried and executed. In this city Rollo the Dane—the founder of the Norman line destined to ascend the English throne—was buried. Orleans, which is situated on the Loire, is celebrated for its siege by the

English, which was relieved by Joan of Arc, for which victory she was styled the Maid of Orleans. Lille is a handsome city; its citadel, next to Turin, is supposed to be the strongest in Europe.

France possesses great advantage for manufactures, being full of materials, and having an active and skilful population, and ready means of communication with the neighbouring countries. There is scarcely a branch of manufacture which the French have not pursued with success. The French articles best known in commerce are the silks of Lyons, the lace and linen of Flanders, the woollens of Normandy, and the wines and brandies of Bordeaux. Among its other manufactures are broadcloths, cottons, clocks, and watches, fine porcelain, cut-glass, hardware, hats, and household furniture. The exports of France are of great importance; and it receives extensive imports, not only from its own colonies, but from all Europe and the United States of America.

France has many colonial possessions; the principal are Algeria, in Africa; the islands of Guadaloupe and Martinique, in the West Indies; Cayenne, on the coast of Guiana; Bourbon, off Madagascar; and Pondicherry, on the Coromandel coast, in Hindostan.

The predominant religion of France is the Roman-Catholic; but there are numbers of Protestants throughout the country, and especially in Alsace and Languedoc. The Protestants are partly of the Lutheran, but chiefly of the Reformed Church.

Before the revolution, France had twenty-three universities, that of Paris being the most important and celebrated. Education is general throughout the country. In 1836 there were 36,000 elementary schools for boys, and 11,000 for girls; 73 normal schools for training teachers; 873 boarding-schools; 322 district high-schools; and 41 royal schools. Since then, education has even become far more extended: at present, the proportion of scholars in France is about one-third greater than in 1833.

The supreme ruler of France is an Emperor, whose

government is almost an absolute monarchy. The crown is hereditary in the Napoleonic line; the power of naming his successor being possessed by the present Emperor. There is a Council of State, whose members are appointed by the Emperor; and there is another body, called the Senate, whose members are appointed in the same manner. Besides these there is a Legislative Assembly, nominally chosen by the people; but the powers of all these chambers are very limited. The Emperor can alter the constitution at his pleasure.

AUSTRIA.

SECTION V.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE Austrian empire comprehends not only Austria properly so called, but the kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia; part of Poland; the provinces of Moravia, Transylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, and Dalmatia; and Venice, in Italy. The dominion of the house of Austria comprehends nearly one-twelfth of the surface of Europe; but it is far inferior in extent to the empire of Russia. Its territorial surface has been variously stated: it is about 260,495 square geographical miles. The greatest length of the empire is 870, and its greatest breadth 690 miles.

The soil of the Austrian dominions is of endless variety, but it is generally favoured by a mild and genial climate, and is distinguished by remarkable productiveness. A large portion of the empire is occupied by mountains, which send out numerous lofty and wide-spreading ridges. The chief mountains are the Tyrolese Alps, the Carpathians, the Silesian-Moravian range, the Glatzer-Gebirge, the Riesen-Gebirge, or Giant Mountains, the Sudetes, the Ore Mountains of Saxony and Bohemia, the Bohemian Middle Mountains, the Bohemian Forest Mountains, and tho Moravian Mountains. The position of these mountains, to a certain extent, breaks up the Austrian territory into separate parts, and throws great difficulties in the way of internal communication.

The only sea-coast which this empire possesses is on the Adriatic; but as regards lakes and inland waters, the Austrian territory will bear a comparison with most countries in Europe. Its chief lakes are in Hungary, Dalmatia, the Italian dominions of Austria, and the earldom of the Vorarlberg. Its rivers are too numerous to mention. Among the most important are those of the Inn, the Traun, the Ens, the March, the Drave, the Waag, the Danube, the Theiss, the Gran, the Dniester, the Oder. The canals which exist in the Austrian dominions are of limited extent, and merely local in their advantages. The largest are the Temesh and the Emperor Francis' Canals. In the Venetian territory canals are more numerous.

The variety of the soil of Austria is perhaps greater than that of any other state in Europe. Its products are every species of grain grown in England: and in addition, rice and maize. Tobacco, pepper, mustard, and ginger, are also raised in different parts of the empire. Bohemia yields fine hops; hemp is grown in Moravia; the Milanese produce indigo; and the saffron of the Lower Ens is equal to any grown in Europe. Many medicinal plants, as rhubarb and liquorice, are cultivated in Austria; and the cultivation of fruit is carried to a great extent in every part except Galicia. More than one-third of the available soil, however, is occupied by woods and forests. The level districts grow the oak, beech, ash, alder, elm, poplar, lime, birch, willow, and plantain; the more elevated regions produce the fir, pine, larch, cedar, yew, and juniper. Among the productions of the forests are potash, tar, charcoal, gall apples, of which above 200,000 bushels are exported annually, and turpentine. In many parts the vine is greatly cultivated, and many descriptions of wine are made therefrom.

The Austrians pay great attention to the breeding of horses and horned cattle, as well as sheep, goats, and swine. In Hungary, poultry of all kinds is bred to a great extent; and pheasants abound in Bohemia. Game of all kinds is everywhere plentiful; and in the list of

wild animals we find the bear, wolf, lynx, fox, martin, chamois goat, otter, land tortoise, wild boar, eagle, vulture, and leeches. The white heron is so numerous that its feathers are an article of export.

The rivers of Austria abound in fish; among which may be mentioned the sturgeon, salmon, pike, carp, and trout; all of which are very fine as to flavour and size. The pearl-bearing muscle inhabits some of the rivers of Austria, and coral is collected on the coast of Dalmatia.

Bees are objects of much attention in Hungary, Galicia, and Transylvania: and Spanish flies are a considerable article of export from Hungary and Sclavonia.

In mineral productions Austria surpasses every other nation in Europe. They are gold, silver, copper, iron, quicksilver, calemine, zinc, cobalt, antimony, soda, and several varieties of salt. There are also many coal mines in Austria, but wood is chiefly used for fuel. Austria also produces many precious stones, and several species of marble; and every part of its dominions abounds in mineral waters.

SECTION VI.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE principal cities of Austria are Vienna, the capital, in the province of Austria; Presburg and Buda, in Hungary; Prague, in Bohemia; Gratz, the capital of Styria; Inspruck, the capital of the Tyrol; Venice, and Padua.

Vienna is situated on the right bank of the Danube. Its public buildings, palaces, churches, &c., are very numerous. It contains a fine library, consisting of above 400,000 volumes and 16,000 manuscripts, and a museum, perhaps the richest in Europe, especially in mineralogy, engravings, and medals. The city is of small extent, but populous, containing about 550,000 inhabitants. It is chiefly inhabited by the nobility and attendants on the court, persons in public offices, and those who usually administer to the wants and luxuries of a metropolis,

Vienna has been the scene of various celebrated events recorded in history.

VIENNA.

Prague is one of the most celebrated cities of Austria. It is now chiefly remarkable for its religious foundations. It has been within the last two centuries successively captured by the Saxons, the Swedes, the French, and the Prussians. Prague is also rendered illustrious by being the birth-place of John Huss and Jerome of Prague, and of the Austrian commander, Wallenstein, and the famous

VENICE.

landscape-painter, Haller. Tycho Brahê, the celebrated astronomer, died in this city.

Venice stands on above a hundred little islands, in a kind of lake or lagoon, separated from the Gulf of Venice by some islands, at a few miles distance. Most of its houses have a door opening upon a canal, and another into a street, by means of which, and of the bridges, of which there are more than 500, a person may go to any part of the city by land or water. It possesses numerous convents and churches.

Presburg, the capital of Upper Hungary, is noted for the peace which was signed here in the year 1803, by which Austria signed her exclusion from Italy, and consented to a great loss of dominion in Germany.

Austria has but few sea-ports, and hence its exports are not considerable. They consist chiefly of corn, wine, saffron, wool, silk, and the produce of its mines.

The great mass of the Austrian population is composed of six different races. These are of Sclavonic extraction, of German descent, the Magyars, the Italians, the Valaks, and Jews. As a body the Austrians are a brave and polished people, and well versed in the arts and sciences. Perhaps of all the different races, the Magyars of Hungary are the most warlike.

The established religion of Austria is the Roman Catholic: for any other form there is but little toleration.

In the civil administration of Austria, the empire is divided into six kingdoms, four duchies, and two princely earldoms. These several principalities, or provinces, are united under an hereditary monarchy, but the empire does not appear to be founded on a stable basis. Thus Hungary recently revolted; and had not the Russian autocrat poured his forces into the Hungarian dominions, in aid of the Emperor, the Magyar forces would in all probability have been completely victorious. Still more recently Tuscany, Modena, and Parma, in north-west Italy, have been wrested from Austria and united to Sardinia.

TURKEY.

SECTION VII.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

TURKEY is an empire, situated in Europe, Asia, and Africa. Turkey in Europe is a very extensive country, occupying the south-eastern part of the European continent. It is bounded on the north by the Austrian and Russian territories; on all other parts by the sea.

The Turkish empire is divided into "eyalets," or provinces, each containing a number of "sanjaks," or districts. Its provinces in Europe are Roumelia, Thessaly, Albania, Herzegovina, Bosnia, Bulgaria, Servia, Wallachia, and Moldavia.

The most celebrated mountains of European Turkey are Hæmus, or the Balkan, Tchar Dagh, Despoto Dagh, Dinaric Alps, Pindus, and Athos. Its chief rivers are the Danube, the Save, and the Pruth.

The climate of European Turkey is pure, temperate, and delightful. The general appearance of the country is mountainous, but the mountains are interspersed with extensive valleys. The soil is very rich and fertile. The northern provinces abound in corn and luxuriant pastures; the southern produce rice and every kind of the most delicious fruits. The principal articles which Turkey exports to England are raisins, figs, valonia, raw silk, opium, madder-root, sheep's wool, lamb skins, cotton wool, and wheat. The southern parts of European Turkey produce many valuable drugs, especially rhubarb; but the latter does not appear to be exported to England in any quantities.

SECTION VIII.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE principal cities of Turkey in Europe are Constantinople, the capital of the empire, Adrianople, Belgrade, Salonica, Larissa, Bucharest, Sophia, Nicopoli, and Chomla.

Constantinople, or "The City of Constantine," is situated on the Sea of Marmora, and at the west end of the narrow channel of the Bosphorus. By nature, the

BLACK SEA
SCUTARI
CONSTANTINOPLE
TURKEY IN EUROPE
SEA of MARMORA
1
TURKEY IN ASIA
DARDANELLES
3
4

ground on which it stands is fitted for the site of a great commercial city—the connecting-link between Europe and Asia. The city stands upon the seven hills of a triangular promontory; and this is the main cause, not only of its picturesque and beautiful appearance, but of its salubrity. It is adorned by Mosques, whose gilded domes point to heaven, by lofty towers, and many public buildings, conspicuous among which is the Seraglio, or the vast palace of the Sultan, three miles in circuit. The public baths, of which there are more than one hundred, do not contribute, by their architecture, to the beauty of the city externally, but within, many of them are handsome and spacious. The public fountains are very numerous, and

CONSTANTINOPLE.

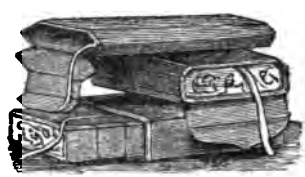
some of them are most beautiful objects as works of art. The population of Constantinople is supposed to be about 700,000. The foreign trade of the city is considerable, its chief exports being raw silk and opium.

Salonica may be mentioned as the ancient Thessalonica where St. Paul preached the Gospel, about the year 52; and to the Christians in that city he afterwards addressed his two Epistles, which form part of Holy Scripture.

The inhabitants of Turkey are divided into two great classes—the Turks-Osmanlis, who are the ruling race, and

the Rayas, or "the flock," including all who are not Mohammedans, and who are the ancient inhabitants of the countries conquered by the Turks-Osmanlis. The Rayas are far more numerous than the Turks, especially in Europe. They belong to different nations—Greeks, Bosnians, Servians, Bulgarians, and Armenians. The Turks themselves are chiefly of Tartaric origin, with an infusion of the Georgian and Circassian blood. As a nation, they are an indolent people, but when roused from their apathy they are courageous and revengeful.

The civil and religious law having only one source, namely, the Koran, the highest dignitary is the Mufti, who is the supreme authority with regard to the legality of religious, civil, and political acts. He is the patriarch and high-chancellor of the empire, and second to none but the sultan. The state dignities of the empire are two-fold—the dignities of the pen, and the dignities of the sword; the former belonging to the civil, and the latter to the warlike administration of the empire.



TURKISH BOOKS AND CASES.

The Turks are blindly devoted to the religion of Mohammed; which religion regard every other faith with abhorrence, and demands the most implicit belief from its followers. It is utterly adverse to learning and philosophy; but the present sultan is superior to the prejudices of his faith; he has greatly promoted scientific, medical, and literary education.

TURK PRAYING.

The government of Turkey is an absolute despotism; its monarchs have been frequently deposed and murdered by the rebellious soldiers. The Turkish soldiers, however, are

differently constituted now to what they were when they deposed their monarchs. The Janizzaries have been exterminated, and the troops have received a European organization.

The population of this great empire is neither equal to its extent nor fertility. Balbi states that the whole area is 1,033,200 square miles. This area is peopled by 34,000,000 inhabitants; of whom there are 15,000,000 in Europe, 16,000,000 in Asia, and 3,000,000 in Africa. The most recent authority estimates the revenues of the country at £21,000,000.

GREAT BRITAIN.

SECTION IX.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

GREAT BRITAIN has been the legal name of the island containing England, Scotland, and Wales, ever since the legislative union of the two countries of England and Scotland in 1707.

Great Britain is the largest island in Europe, and one of the largest in the world. It is divided from the mainland of Europe by a narrow arm of the sea, called the English Channel, which extends along the southern shores of the island and separates it from France, and by a portion of the Atlantic, which is almost detached from the main body of the ocean by the island of Great Britain itself. This sea is called the North Sea, and it separates Great Britain from Belgium, the Netherlands, Germany, Denmark and Norway. The English Channel and the North Sea are united by the Straits of Dover.

The Lizard Point, the most southern part of Great Britain, is in 49° 58′ N. lat.; and Dunnet Head, in Caithness, the most northern part, is in 58° 42′ N. lat. The most eastern point is Lowestoft, in Suffolk, 1° 46′ E. long.; and the most western, Airdnamurchan Point, in Argyle, 6° 20′ W. long. The distance from Lizard Point south to

Dunnet Head north is about 608 miles. The direct distance from Dunnet Head to the North Foreland is about 540 miles, and to the Land's End about 600; from the North Foreland lighthouse to the Land's End, the distance is about 320 miles. The surface of the island is about 87,000 square miles; of which the northern part, or Scotland, contains 30,000; and the southern, or England and Wales, the remainder.

Though Great Britain does not contain such elevated mountain ranges as many parts of continental Europe, it probably exhibits a greater variety in surface and soil than any other European country of equal extent. The west side of the island is rugged and mountainous; but in nearly the whole of its length the mountains subside toward the east into a hilly and undulating country with extensive plains. Towards the north, the western mountains are called the Highlands of Scotland; and towards the south, the Cambrian and Devonian Mountains. Besides the mountainous land along the west coast, the principal ranges are the Grampian Mountains and the Cheviot Hills, which run from north-east to south-west. South of these are the Cumberland and Westmoreland Hills, and farther south, Malvern Hills. South of the Bristol Channel are the Mendip and the Cotswold Hills.

The chief rivers of Great Britain are the Ouse, the Trent, the Thames, the Medway, the Severn, the Wye, the Tay, the Tweed, the Spey, the Clyde, the Eden, the Mersey, the Weaver, the Tyne, the Tees, the North Dee, the Ness, the Forth, the Lochie and Spean, the Nith, and the Findhorn. The longest course is that of "Old Father Thames," which runs 200 miles, and in that distance receives the drainage of about 5,500 square miles.

The principal lakes of Great Britain are Loch Lochy and Loch Ness, far to the north; Loch Lomond, between the Forth and Clyde; and Lakes Windermere and Derwent Water, in the Cumberland and Westmoreland hills.

Being situated nearly in the middle of the temperate zone, Great Britain enjoys the advantages arising from

such a geographical position; its climate and soil are such as, except in the rugged mountainous districts, to yield a plentiful return to industry and skill in the most important fruits of the earth. The air is generally humid and temperate; the surrounding ocean moderating the summer heats and winter colds. It is, perhaps, owing to the equality of its seasons that the inhabitants enjoy in general a greater share of health, and attain a greater age, than in most of the continental countries.

In early times England was overrun with woods, like the wilds of America. At that time the bear, the wolf, and the wild boar roamed through its forests; herds of stags ranged through its woods; roebucks bounded over its hills; and the wild bull ranged in its marshy pastures. The scene is now changed. On every hand are seen the effects of cultivation; even the rudest parts are clothed with almost perpetual verdure, and smile in all the beauties of nature. England now possesses no other wild quadrupeds than some of the smaller kind, as the fox, wild cat, badger, marten, otter, hedgehog, hare, rabbit, squirrel, dormouse, mole, and several species of the rat and mouse. In domestic quadrupeds England abounds, and they are too well known to require enumeration in these pages. There is no country which produces superior breeds of horses, oxen, sheep, and hogs. Its domestic fowls also can vie with those of any other country. Providence has blessed the hand of industry, and has turned a land of poverty into a land of wealth and abundance. Its "valleys stand so thick with corn" in the joyful season of summer, that, in the figurative language of Scripture, they may be said to "laugh and sing." Nor is it the external soil of Great Britain alone which produces wealth. Its minerals—coal, iron, lime, tin, copper, lead and salt—are invaluable, not only for the wealth they produce to their owners, but for the vast amount of labour they afford to the poorer population. Moreover, the bays and the estuaries of Great Britain abound in fish, which is a great source of wealth and employment.

SECTION X.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE principal cities and towns of Great Britain are—in the south, London the capital, Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham, Leeds, Bristol, Plymouth, Sheffield, Hull, Norwich, Oxford, and York; in the north, Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, and Glasgow, are the most important.

London, the metropolis of Great Britain, is one of the largest and most populous cities in the world. It stands nearly at the head of the navigable tideway of the river Thames. The area of its several divisions is nearly 50,000 acres, and its population about 2,500,000. As a town, it is known to have existed for nearly two thousand years. It is spoken of by Tacitus, as being celebrated in the first century, for the great number of its merchants, and its extensive traffic. In the fourth century it had 800 ships engaged in the corn-trade alone. But there are very few of its buildings more than a century old. The most ancient specimens of architecture are parts of the Tower, the Temple Church, Westminster Hall, and the church of St. Bartholomew the Great, and that of St. Mary Overies, at the south end of London Bridge. Of later dates there are numerous interesting specimens of architecture. The Cathedral of St. Paul, for instance, is the most capacious, magnificent, and regular Protestant church in the world;

LONDON.

its length within the walls is 500 feet, and its height 360. London is renowned for its charitable institutions; the orphan and the afflicted here find on every hand a comfortable asylum. It is also celebrated for its numerous establishments for the purposes of instruction; and its societies and erections connected with education, science, literature and the arts, are both numerous and important. As a mart for the world's produce, London stands unrivalled. Ships from every quarter of the globe enter its port, laden with all kinds of foreign and colonial produce and merchandise. The coasting trade of the port of London is also enormous; and the wealth of the London merchants is proverbial.

Bristol is a sea-port and city in Gloucestershire; it has been long noted for its wealth, trade, and population. Liverpool is a large, flourishing and populous sea-port of Lancashire; it is the second port in the kingdom, although two centuries ago it was only a small fishing hamlet. Manchester is a place of great antiquity, and is remarkable as the centre of the cotton trade, and as the chief manufacturing town in England. Birmingham is celebrated for its brass and iron-work; and Leeds, a town in Yorkshire, is noted for its cloth trade. Hull, on the Humber, is a port of great commerce, principally with the Baltic; and the two southern ports of Devonport and Portsmouth, are the principal stations of the Royal Navy. In a word, every county in England contains a city or town either celebrated for its antiquity, or important for its trade and manufactures.

In the north, Edinburgh, which is supposed to have derived its name from Edwin, a king of Northumbria in the time of the Heptarchy, is the chief city of importance: it stands upon a group of hills separated by deep depressions, and is at once the site and the scene of views of great beauty and grandeur. The city is divided into three parts—the Old Town, the South Side, and the New Town. Edinburgh was once the seat of royalty, and among its chief buildings is the Castle, which is the most ancient part of

EDINBURGH.

the city. The old Parliament House is still standing, and so are the famous Palace and Abbey of Holyrood. At the foot of the High-street stands one of the oldest stone houses in Edinburgh; it was the residence of the great Scottish reformer, John Knox. Edinburgh contains an University, which was founded by James VI. of Scotland, and which is still in a very flourishing condition. A still older school is the High School, which was originally instituted in 1519. Edinburgh contains the supreme courts of justice for Scotland, and is the residence of the principal practitioners of the legal profession; it is also the chief school of medicine and the sciences for North Britain. Its population is about 200,000.

Great Britain is divided into Counties; in England there are 40, in Wales 12, and in Scotland 32 counties.

The form of government in Great Britain is generally called a limited or constitutional monarchy. This, however, is an inaccurate description. The sovereign power may be considered as residing in three bodies or estates—King, Lords, and Commons. These three estates constitute the parliament, and the concurrence of these three members of the sovereign power is necessary for enacting, annulling, or altering any law. The administration of this government is entrusted to certain great officers of State, the head of whom is styled Prime Minister.

The superior courts for the administration of justice, are the High Courts of Chancery, the Court of Exchequer, the Court of Queen's Bench, and the Court of Common Pleas. Besides these there are many inferior courts, with local jurisdiction. Courts of Assize are held by judges in every county, for which purpose the country is divided into eight districts.

England and Wales are divided into two provinces, York and Canterbury. These provinces contain twenty-five bishoprics, exclusive of the bishopric of the Isle of Man. Every parish is under the spiritual charge of a clergyman, who is either rector, vicar, or perpetual curate. The religion of Great Britian is essentially Protestant, and the Form acknowledged and protected by the State is the Protestant Episcopal Church; but Dissenters are numerous and powerful. They are chiefly Wesleyans, Independents, and Baptists.

In Scotland the prevalent Form of Religion is the Presbyterian, of which one portion composes the Established Church, and the other the Free Church. Dissenters however are numerous, and possess great influence.

EUROPEAN ISLANDS BELONGING TO GREAT BRITAIN.

SECTION XI.

THE principal islands of England are the Isles of Man, Anglesea, Wight, Scilly, Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark.

The Isle of Man is situated in St. George's Channel, and is almost equi-distant from England, Scotland, and Ireland. Anglesea is at the north-west corner of Wales, and is very rich as to mineral wealth. The Isle of Wight is considered part of the county of Hampshire, and is a most delightful spot, not inappropriately called the Garden of England. The Queen has a marine residence in that island, called Osborne House. The Scilly Isles, 145 in number, lie about twenty-six miles west from the extremity of Corn-

wall. Jersey, anciently Carsaria, is situated about fifteen miles from the coast of Normandy. Guernsey is included in the county of Hants, and is a healthy, fruitful, and populous island. Alderney lies about nine miles west from *Cape la Hogue*, in Normandy, and it is noted for its fine breed of cows. From Holyhead, north-west of Anglesea, on the most advanced point, is the regular passage from England to Dublin. The Isle of Anglesea was the chief abode of the Druidical Priesthood, when the inhabitants of Great Britain acknowledged their sway. Holy Island, north of Northumberland, was so called from a celebrated monastery in Saxon times. It was the original of the See of Durham.

IRELAND.

SECTION XII.

IRELAND, which is an integral part of the Empire of Great Britain, is separated from England and Scotland by a branch of the Atlantic Ocean, called the Irish Sea, St. George's Channel, and North Channel. It is about 300 miles in length, and 200 in breadth. The country is divided into the four provinces of Ulster, Munster, Leinster, and Connaught, and these provinces are subdivided into thirty-two counties.

Ireland is not remarkable for its mountains. It is in general a level county, with a temperate climate, and a soil extremely fertile, and well adapted for corn, pasture, hemp, and flax. Frosts are rarely severe in Ireland, and snow does not lie so long as in England; neither are thunder storms of so frequent occurrence, or of so formidable a character. The prevalent winds are from the west and south, and these are usually accompanied by a mild state of the atmosphere. The mildness and humidity of the climate of Ireland are discerned in its scenery, the chief characteristics of which are freshness and verdure. The surface of Ireland is less rugged than that of Scotland, and more undulating than that of England; but it is gene-

rally deficient in timber. The centre of the country, for 160 miles from east to west, is occupied by a great plain, on a substratum of limestone. A considerable portion of this plain is bog, but the extension of tillage has redeemed much of these unsightly parts of the country.

The chief rivers of Ireland are the Blackwater, the Lee, the Shannon, the Bandon, the Barrow, the Nore, the Suir, the Slaney, the Liffey, the Boyne, the Lagan, the Bann, and the Foyle. Its chief lakes are Loch Erne, Loch Neagh, and Lochs Corrib, Mask, Allen, Ree, Derg, and Killarney. The surface of all the lakes of Ireland is estimated at 336 square miles.

Ireland is fruitful in all the productions belonging to its latitude. Its beasts, birds, fishes, &c., are similar to those of England, but its zoology possesses this one remarkable feature, that neither moles, nor toads, nor any of the serpent tribe, are found in the country.

The productive powers of the soil of Ireland are little more than half developed; but a large quantity of Irish agricultural produce is exported. Its chief exports are oxen, horses, sheep, swine, the various descriptions of grain, potatoes, eggs, feathers, butter, hides, wool, flax, spirits, and beer. It also exports lead and copper ore; but its mines and quarries are not worked to the full extent. The manufactures of Ireland are chiefly unbleached linens, cotton fabrics, and woollen, worsted, and stuff articles.

Ireland is represented in the imperial parliament by 105 members of the House of Commons, and 28 temporal and 4 spiritual peers in the House of Lords. The temporal peers are elective representatives for life; the spiritual peers take the office in rotation.

Ireland is ecclesiastically divided into four provinces, and thirty-two dioceses. The Roman Catholic establishment consists of four archbishops, and twenty-three bishops, and their provinces and dioceses are for the most part co-extensive with those of the Established Church. There are two Presbyterian bodies, and these are governed by Synods. The Clergy of the Established Church are

supported by Church lands and tithes—those of the Presbyterian Church by parochial stipends, and an annual grant, called the *Regium Donum*, from government; the Roman Catholic clergy by contributions levied from the people.

The principal law courts of Ireland are the Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, Exchequer, and Chancery. Courts of Quarter Sessions are held in the several counties by assistant barristers, and there are numerous minor courts in the principal towns throughout the country.

The chief cities of Ireland are Dublin, Londonderry, Cork; its chief towns Galway, Limerick, Waterford, Belfast, and Kilkenny.

Dublin is the metropolis of Ireland, and it ranks second in the British dominions. It is situated on the river Liffey, and is a very handsome city. It contains about 260,000 inhabitants. Many great men have been born

DUBLIN.

in Dublin, among whom may be mentioned, Archbishop Usher, Swift, Parnell, Sir Richard Steele, Sir Philip Francis, and Richard Brinsley Sheridan. It contains a noted University, which has produced many eminent and learned men.

SPAIN.

SECTION XIII.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

SPAIN is a country in Europe occupying the greater part of that peninsula which is divided from France by the Pyrenees. From its north-western point, Cape Finisterre, to the most eastern, Cape Creux, is a distance of nearly 600 miles; from Tarifa to Fuentarabia, on the Bay of Biscay, nearly 540 miles; and from Cape Ortegal to Cape de Gata, the most south-eastern promontory, about 556 miles. Its whole area is about 185,000 miles.

Spain presents a more marked difference in the form of its surface than any other country of Europe, of equal extent. The interior is a table-land, whose surface is from two to three thousand feet above the level of the sea. Between the table-land and the Mediterranean there is also a lower country, which in some parts is hilly and mountainous, and in others extends in wide plains. South of the table-land is the basin of the river Guadalquivir, by which the table-land is separated from another more elevated and mountainous region, which extends over the southern part of Spain, along the Mediterranean and the Strait of Gibraltar.

The most important mountains of Spain are the Pyrenees, which divide the country from France, the mountains of Asturias, the mountains of Castile, the mountains of Toledo, the Sierra Morena, and the Sierra Nevada. Its chief rivers are the Douro, the Tagus, the Guadiana, the Ebro, the Minho, the Segura, the Xucar, and the Guadalquivir.

The climate of Spain is various. In the northern provinces the winters are cold; in the middle provinces the air is temperate; while in Andalusia, Catalonia, and Valencia, the heat is often extreme.

Naturally, the soil of Spain is fertile; but it is comparatively unproductive, from want of proper cultivation. The most common cultivated kinds of grain are wheat,

maize, barley, and rice. Hemp and flax are grown in the basin of the Ebro, and madder and saffron on the table-land of Cuença. In the southern districts, the sugar-cane, cotton, and the aloe are cultivated. The most common vegetables are onions, pumpkins, cucumbers, melons, potatoes, beans, and peas. Many fruit trees are cultivated, as the almond, fig, pomegranate, lemon, orange, pistachia nut, caroba, date, walnut, hazel-nut, and chestnut. Olive trees and vineyards occur in every part except the mountain tracts and most elevated regions. Among the wild trees are the sweet-acorn oak, the kermes oak, cork tree, the sumach tree, &c., and on the offsets of the mountains there are several large forests of timber trees. In the vicinity of Seville, the liquorice plant is abundant, and the caper bush grows wild in the countries along the Mediterranean.

Among the domestic animals, the sheep, horses, asses, and mules, are distinguished. Cattle are numerous in some parts, and goats are more numerous than in any country in Europe. Wild cattle abound in the mountain region of Sierra Nevada, and the chamois in the Pyrenees. Porcupines are numerous in some parts. The mountains contain wolves, bears, lynxes, the wild cat, and martens. Chameleons are found near Cadiz, and monkeys exist on the rock of Gibraltar. The flamingo is sometimes seen in Spain, and there are also eagles. The care of the silk-worm, the cochineal insect, and bees, are branches of industry. There are but few kinds of fishes in the rivers of Spain, but the fishery in the Atlantic is important and profitable.

Spain abounds in minerals. Its chief minerals are copper, quicksilver, lead, iron, tin, calamine, bismuth, cobalt, alum, and some gold and silver. Coal occurs in some parts; many kinds of marble are obtained in Catalonia; and several precious stones are found, as rubies, topazes, amethysts, turquoises, and garnets. Building stone abounds.

SECTION XIV.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

ANCIENTLY, Spain was divided into thirteen large provinces; viz.—the *seven kingdoms* of Gallicia, Navarre, Leon, Aragon, Valencia, Murcia, Granada, the *two principalities* Asturias and Catalonia; the *four provinces*, Old Castile, New Castile, Estremadura, and Andalusia. There are now forty-nine provinces.

The chief cities of Spain are Madrid, the capital of the kingdom, Seville, Cadiz, Barcelona, Granada, Toledo, Burgos, Salamanca, Saragossa, Valencia, Cordova, and Xeres.

Madrid stands on a range of small hills rising in the middle of the extensive plain of New Castile. The city stands more than 2,000 English feet above the level of the sea, whence in winter the cold is severe, and in summer the heat is excessive. It is surrounded by a brick wall, twenty feet high, which contains fifteen gates, mostly built of coarse grey granite. Its general aspect is not inviting, but the interior is not devoid of architectural beauty. It contains many splendid buildings; and the royal palace of Madrid is not surpassed by any royal residence in Europe. Public promenades abound in Madrid; the most frequented is the Prado, which consists of various alleys, lined with double rows of trees, and ornamented with beautiful marble fountains. Along the east side of the Prado is the national gallery,—a noble building of colossal dimensions, with a fine Tuscan portico and Doric colonnades. The circumference of the city is about five miles, and its population about 280,000. Its inhabitants are fond of pleasure. Every Monday during the season, vast multitudes repair to an amphitheatre outside the gate of Alcalá, where their favourite though brutal spectacle of the bull-fight is exhibited. Madrid has little manufacturing industry; those of porcelain and tapestry are both the property of the crown.

Many of the inland cities of Spain exhibit tokens of former grandeur, but have much declined in wealth and

population. Seville is supposed to have been founded by the Phœnicians; and Granada, containing the Alhambra, was the favoured metropolis of the Moorish kingdom, which was overthrown by Ferdinand of Castile. Salamanca is noted for its university, and its vicinity is celebrated as the scene of a great victory gained by the Duke of Wellington over the French in 1812. Saragossa is said to have been built by the Phœnicians. It formerly contained great treasures, but it was despoiled of these by the French, in 1809, who took it by storm, after a memorable defence by its inhabitants. Vittoria is noted for another brilliant victory, gained by Wellington over the French under the joint command of Joseph Buonaparte and General Jourdan.

The established religion of Spain is the Roman Catholic,—no other is tolerated. The wealth of the Spanish Church was, at one time, immense; but since the revolution, the clergy have been deprived of the tithes, and they are now partially dependent on the nation for support.

The public revenue of Spain amounts to about £18,000,000, but the expenditure for several years has greatly exceeded the receipts. No country in Europe equals Spain in natural advantages for commerce; but it is far behind any other country in commercial importance. At the present time, Catalonia is almost the only province where manufacturing is carried on to any great extent. The chief exports of Spain are wines, dried fruits, corn, oil, silk, wool, quicksilver, lead, and barilla.

The government of Spain, in the Middle Ages, and even up to a recent period, was absolute; but it is now a limited monarchy. In 1832 a new charter was granted, which restored much liberty to the people. Two Chambers were then established—that of the Disputados, and that of the Senadores—the members of which are invested with equal powers. Both chambers are elected by the people; the crown having the privilege of choosing one out of every three senators presented by the electors of the provinces. The national assembly is called the Cortes.

PORTUGAL.

SECTION XV.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE Kingdom of Portugal is the most westerly in Europe. It forms part of the Spanish Peninsula, and it is not divided from Spain by any well-defined natural boundaries. The country is bounded on the north by the Spanish province of Galicia; on the east by the Spanish provinces of Leon, Estremadura, and Andalusia; and on the west by the ocean. Its greatest length is about 350 miles, from north to south; its breadth 145 miles.

All the principal rivers of Portugal, as the Tagus, Minho, Douro, and Guadiana, have their sources in Spain. The only considerable river which has its origin in Portugal is the Mondego.

The surface of Portugal is greatly diversified, and affords many romantic and picturesque views. Its soil is, for the most part, light and shallow; but it is highly favourable to the growth of the vine and other fruit-trees, and, in rainy seasons, is capable of producing corn in great abundance. The climate varies greatly in the north and south, but it is generally healthy.

The products of Portugal are corn, Indian-corn, rice, hemp, flax, honey, wax, oranges, almonds, and lemons. The sea along the coasts and the rivers abound with fish, which is a great article of food with all classes. The animals of the country are nearly the same as those in Spain, and so are its mineral productions. The manufactured articles are very few; wine is the only important one.

The population of Portugal is about three millions and a half. The inhabitants resemble, in appearance and manners, those of some of the neighbouring provinces of Spain. But, with all this similarity of character, there has been perpetual enmity between them;—"the Spaniards despise the Portuguese—the Portuguese hate the Spaniards."

SECTION XVI.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

PORTUGAL was divided, for administrative purposes, into six provinces, namely—Entre Douro e Minho, Tras os Montes, Beira, Estremadura, Alemtejo, and Algarve. The Cortes have recently made a new territorial division of the kingdom into twelve provinces, which are subdivided into twenty-six comarcas, which are again further divided into julgados.

The principal cities of Portugal are Lisbon, the capital, Oporto, and Coimbra. Lisbon was nearly destroyed by an earthquake in 1755, the fatal effects of which are still visible in many parts of the city. The poet Camöens, the pious Doddridge, and Fielding the novelist, all died at Lisbon.

Oporto is famous for its commerce in port wine. In 1809 it was taken by the French, under Marshal Soult, and many of its inhabitants were massacred. Coimbra, the ancient seat of an university, is noted as the burial-place of Alphonso I., who first took the title of King of Portugal.

The Portuguese are, in general, far behind the rest of Europe in the arts and elegancies of life. They are superstitiously attached to the Roman Catholic religion, and their consciences are completely under the dominion of monks and friars. But, though Catholicism is the religion of the State in Portugal, and their constitution contains no article allowing any other worship, other creeds are tolerated.

Education in Portugal is lower than in Spain. The only university established is at Coimbra. Lisbon, however, is not wanting in those literary and scientific institutions which, in any well-regulated country, are calculated to encourage and advance science.

The government of Portugal is now a limited monarchy. Within the last century there have been several new constitutions granted by the Cortes. By the last constitution, which was granted in 1836, two chambers were established.

Both these chambers are elective; but no citizen can be an elector unless he possesses an income of 80,000 reis, or £20 arising from landed property.

PRUSSIA.

SECTION XVII.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE Prussian dominions consist of two great divisions. The western and smaller portion is situated on both sides the Rhine, and is called Rhenish Prussia; comprehending an area of about 18,550 square miles. The eastern portion is much larger; it contains an area of about 91,620 square miles, or, about 7,000 square miles more than the surface of Great Britain.

Rhenish Prussia is divided into two equal portions by the Rhine. Each of these divisions consists of an elevated table-land, and a low plain. The eastern portion of Prussia is a part of the great plain of Eastern Europe, which extends from the Straits of Dover to the foot of the Uralian Mountains. Rhenish Prussia contains no mountains of note; but in Eastern Prussia there are mountain ranges, which are known under the names of the Sudetes, the Hartz, and Thuringerwald.

Prussia has been divided, as to climate, into three sections—the western, central, and eastern divisions. The difference of the mean temperature in winter in the western and eastern divisions amounts to nine degrees; but in summer it does not exceed two and a half. The annual temperature of London is about one degree greater than that of the western division, and exceeds by nearly eight degrees that of the eastern. As, however, the mean temperature of summer in London is only 61° 2′, the western, and central divisions of Prussia, experience at that season a greater degree of heat than the British metropolis.

Prussia contains numerous forests and lakes. Its chief rivers are the Vistula, the Rhine, the Niemen, the Memel, the Elbe, the Oder, and the Spree. They receive in their

courses several affluents, some of which are navigable. The Rhine is a river of Rhenish Prussia; the rest flow through the eastern provinces.

Prussia does not possess a great variety of natural productions, but it has all those, the cultivation of which has been gradually introduced into central Europe. Wheat, rye, oats, and barley, are raised, both for home consumption and exportation; and there are likewise peas, beans, vetches, millet, maize, potatoes, rape-seed, and linseed. Flax, hemp, hops, tobacco, chicory, beet-root, and garden vegetables of all kinds, are cultivated; but of the first three articles there is not sufficient grown for home consumption. The vine is greatly cultivated in some parts, and especially in Rhenish Prussia; but fruit is not so extensively cultivated as it might be. Prussia has abundance of timber, mostly fir; its chief forests are in Eastern Prussia and Silesia, and occupy about one-fourth of the country. The mineral products are salt from salt-springs, amber, coal, alum, vitriol, saltpetre, alabaster, basalt, granite, porphyry, marble, slate, freestone, chalk, porcelain-clay, and pipe-clay. The metallic products are silver, copper, lead, iron, tin, zinc, cobalt, arsenic, and calamine. The precious stones are the onyx, jasper, agate, garnet, and cornelian.

The domestic animals of Prussia are horses, sheep, horned cattle, goats, swine, asses, and mules. The sheep of Saxony furnish very superior wool; and the hogs of Westphalia are in immense herds. Of wild four-footed animals fit for food, there are stags, fallow-deer, wild boars, hares, and rabbits; and of beasts of prey, and fur-bearing animals, wolves, bears, lynxes, beavers, badgers, pole-cats, otters, weasels, martens, and ermines. Domestic poultry of all kinds abound; and of wild-fowl, besides what we call game, there are immense numbers of wild geese in Pomerania which do great injury to the farmers. Of birds of prey, there are the eagle, the sparrow-hawk, and kite. Fish are abundant in all the rivers of Prussia, and on the long line of coast on the Baltic. Bees and silkworms are bred in great quantities.

SECTION XVIII.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE Prussian monarchy is divided into eight provinces, and these are subdivided into twenty-five governments. The provinces are those of Prussia Proper, Posen, Pomerania, Brandenburg, Silesia, Saxony, Westphalia, and the Rhenish provinces. The total number of the inhabitants is about 17,000,000.

The chief cities of Prussia are Berlin, its capital, Konigsberg, Dantzic, Stettin, Breslau, Cologne, and Memel.

Berlin is situated in a sandy plain, on both banks of the river Spree. It is the largest and finest town in Germany,

BERLIN.

except Vienna, and the ninth in Europe in point of population. The city is divided into six quarters, all of which are united under one system of municipal administration. Connected with the six quarters are four suburbs within the walls, and one beyond them. All its divisions are closely connected with each other, and are surrounded by a wall sixteen feet high, in which there are fourteen land gates and two water gates, besides four minor outlets. Its finest street, called *Unter den Linden (under the limes)* contains six rows of lime trees along its whole length. The Spree winds through Berlin from south-east to north-

west; and there are forty-two bridges over its bed, leading from one part of the city to another. Its public buildings are numerous, among which may be enumerated hospitals, military infirmaries, barracks, royal magazines, and cemeteries.

Berlin also contains a noble museum, a royal exchange, a royal bank, gymnasiums, and royal residences. Several colossal statues are erected in various parts, among which are those of Scharnhorst and Bulow, two celebrated commanders in the campaigns between 1812 and 1815. There is also a handsome bronze monument, erected in honour of that gallant commander, Blucher, who completed the victory of Waterloo. Berlin is the seat of civil and military government for the whole kingdom, and it abounds in literary and scientific establishments, the funds of which are greatly assisted by government. It is one of the first manufacturing towns in the Prussian dominions. Its chief productions are the celebrated Berlin china, silks, woollens, cottons, stockings, ribbons, gunpowder, cast-iron ware, silk hats, paper, oils, refined sugar, tobacco, and snuff. The city is a place of extensive commercial dealings, and exhibits great prosperity.

The most opulent and commercial port in Prussia is Dantzic. The celebrated geographer, Cluverius, was born here in 1580. Stettin, a sea-port of Pomerania, is also a place of great trade, and is celebrated as the birth-place of Catherine II. Empress of Russia. Konigsberg, the capital of the original kingdom of Prussia, is noted for its university, magnificent palace, handsome library, and great trade in corn and timber. Memel possesses the finest harbour in the Baltic, and has an extensive commerce in timber, linseed, and hemp. Thorn, in Western Prussia, may be mentioned as the birth-place of Copernicus, the celebrated astronomer.

The Prussian government pays great attention to the diffusion of useful knowledge. In every town there are schools for the lower as well as for the superior classes. There are universities at Berlin, Bonn, Breslau, Greifswald,

Halle, and Konigsberg, to all of which Government affords large support.

There is no State religion in Prussia. The religion of the royal family and the great body of the people, is Lutheranism, but Christians of all denominations are admissible to all public employments. About three-fifths of the population are Protestants.

The constitution of Prussia is a somewhat limited monarchy, hereditary in the male and female line. Provincial and district assemblies are established in every part of the kingdom, as a national representation. This representation was granted by the present monarch, Frederick William IV. The government is now in the hands of the Prince of Prussia, as Regent for his brother.

HOLLAND.

SECTION XXX.— PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

The name of Holland properly designates one of the provinces of the ancient republic of the Seven United Provinces, which, being the largest, richest, and in all respects the most important, has often given name to the whole country. Occasionally, but very improperly, the name designates the whole of the original seventeen provinces, when, after a separation of two centuries, they were again united in 1815, by the name of the kingdom of the Netherlands.

Holland is bounded on the east by Germany, on the north and west by the German Ocean or North Sea, and on the south by Belgium. The area of the kingdom is about 13,600 square miles; the population about 3,300,000. The kingdom is now divided into these ten provinces: North Brabant, Guelderland, Holland (divided into N. and S.), Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Overyssel, Groningen, Drenthe, and Limburg.

Holland is a part of the great plain of Northern Europe. It is about 200 miles in length, and 120 in breadth; and

presents one continued plain to the eye, intersected by numerous canals and dykes. The canals of Holland are absolutely necessary to drain it and render it fit for cultivation. But notwithstanding the marshy state of the country, art and labour are amply rewarded, for the land of Holland is extremely fertile, and covered with the richest pastures. The climate, however, for the most part, is unhealthy, especially for foreigners; and the want of good spring water is sensibly felt. In the eastern part the climate is more healthy, as the land is there more elevated than in the western parts.

The principal rivers of Holland are the Rhine, the Maas, and the Yssel. Of the canals, the most important is the North or Helder Canal. The greatest lake is that of Haarlem. It seems probable that the country once belonged to the ocean, but the oldest accounts that we possess represent the land as more extensive than at present.

The domestic animals of Holland are horses of a large strong breed, well adapted for draught and for heavy cavalry; horned cattle, remarkable for their size and beauty; sheep, and swine. The only kind of game is hares, but wild rabbits are numerous among the sand-hills. Domestic poultry is abundant, and there are wild geese, snipes, woodcocks, and plovers. Storks abound, and breed and walk about the towns unmolested. Fish abound on the coasts and in the rivers. There are no minerals, except a little bog iron, but there are brick-earth and potters'-clay in most of the provinces. Sea-salt is found in small quantities on the coasts of Holland and Friesland.

SECTION XX.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

The chief cities of Holland are Amsterdam, Rotterdam, the Hague, Leyden, and Utrecht.

Amsterdam, the capital of the kingdom of Holland, stands on the south bank of the Ij or Y, a gulf of the Zuider Zee. The site on which it stands was originally a

salt marsh; and in order to make a foundation for houses, it was necessary to drive large piles of wood through a thick layer of peat. Such is the substructure of a town which now contains more than 200,000 inhabitants, and which is the greatest commercial city in Europe, except London. It is intersected by numerous canals, thus forming about 100 islands, connected by 300 bridges. The city does not contain any buildings of great note; it has twelve public places, but not one of them is either large or magnificent. It is more noted as being a city of merchants. It is a great dépôt both for the commodities of the East and West Indies, with which it carries on a great trade, through the Dutch colonies and its own trading companies. This city surrendered to the King of Prussia in 1787, to the French in 1795, and in 1813 it was the first place that declared for the restoration of the House of Orange. In this city are interred the renowned Admiral de Ruyter, and the celebrated grammarian, Comenius.

Rotterdam is the chief Dutch port frequented by the English, and is celebrated as the birth-place of the learned Erasmus. Leyden and Utrecht are noted for their universities. Boërhave and the famous critic, Isaac Vossius, were born at Leyden; and here lived Elzevir the printer, and the critic Scaliger. At Utrecht, in 1579, was signed the celebrated union of the Seven United Provinces. Haarlem is celebrated for its cathedral, and fine organ; an instrument which contains eight thousand pipes, and is considered the finest in Europe. Haarlem is also memorable for the siege it held out against the Spaniards, in 1573, for ten months, when it capitulated.

The established religion of Holland is Protestantism, or, as it is called, the Reformed religion. A general toleration, however, has so long prevailed that religious sects of almost every kind enjoy the free exercise of their own forms of worship.

The commerce of Holland is very extensive. Its chief exports are coffee, sugar, spices, tea, silks, and other arti-

cles from the East and West Indies, China, and Japan; and butter, cheese, flax, hemp, corn, tobacco, madder, flower roots, cattle, and horses. The Dutch also export the produce of their fisheries, and of their distilleries and manufactories. The principal manufactures are linen, woollens, silks, and leather. The distilleries of Geneva, or Hollands, have long been very celebrated; and the sugar refineries have of late years greatly increased.

Education is generally diffused throughout Holland. Besides parish schools, which are under the protection of Government, boarding schools are very numerous. No person can open a school without a licence, which is obtained by examination before a special commission.

The constitution of Holland, in a great measure, resembles that of Great Britain. The Crown is hereditary in the male line, and in default of male descendants, in the female line. The executive power is in the hands of the king, and the legislative power in the king and states-general, consisting of two chambers. The first chamber is appointed by the monarch, the second is elected by provincial assemblies.

BELGIUM.

SECTION XXI.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE origin of this kingdom as a separate state dates only from 1830. Up to that period it had been a section of the kingdom of the Netherlands; but in the month of August in that year, the revolution began at Brussels, which severed the Belgian provinces from the crown of Holland. Before the end of the year the separation was recognised by the allied powers of Europe.

The kingdom of Belgium is bounded on the north by the Dutch part of the province of Limbourg, and by North Brabant and Zealand; on the north-west by the North Sea; on the south-west and south by the departments of the Pas de Calais, Nord, Ardennes, and Moselle, in France; and on the east by the Dutch portion of the Grand Duchy

of Luxembourg and the Grand Duchy of the Lower Rhine. The greatest length of the country is 195, and its greatest breadth 112 miles. The population is about 4,500,000.

The general character of Belgium is that of a low level country. Its only mountains of note are those of Hoheveen, which are about 2,265 feet above the sea.

The principal rivers of Belgium are the Maas and the Scheldt, the latter of which is navigable along its whole course through the country. These rivers have several affluents, as the Sambre, the Lys, the Durme, the Dender, and the Rupel. Belgium is also watered by other streams, as the Ourthe, the Vesdre, the Ambleve, the Mehaign, and the Jaar. Moreover, Belgium is intersected with canals, but they are not so numerous as in Holland.

The soil of Belgium consists almost entirely of clay and sand, and it has for the most part been rendered fertile by the due admixture of both these elements. About nine-elevenths of the surface of the country are under cultivation; and even of the uncultivated parts, considerable quantities are occupied by productive forests, chiefly of oak.

The most general objects of cultivation in Belgium are wheat, rye, barley, oats, meslin, buck-wheat, hemp, flax, madder, hops, chicory, and the artificial grasses, clover, trefoil, lucerne, and sainfoin. Swedish turnips, carrots, parsnips, and potatoes, are also extensively raised by field culture. In some parts tobacco is grown.

Among the timber-trees of Belgium are the oak, chestnut, horse-chestnut, beech, elm, hornbeam, ash, walnut, fir, and different species of poplar. It is usual throughout the country to plant trees on the borders of fields and round the villages.

The mineral productions of Belgium are iron, calamine, coal, and stone for building. The coal-fields of Belgium are extensive in the provinces of Limbourg, Liege, Namur, and Hainault. About 15,000 men are constantly employed in the coal mines, and the different mines are furnished with numerous steam-engines for pumping out water and raising the coal to the surface.

Fruits of various kinds are brought to perfection in Belgium, and hops are grown in great abundance.

The domestic quadrupeds of Belgium are chiefly horned cattle, horses, and sheep. Pigs are also bred, and the sale of those animals to the northern province formed an important branch of trade before Belgium was separated from Holland. The draft-horses of Belgium are fine animals, and a considerable number of them are every year sold for exportation, especially those of Flanders. The wild boar, bear, and wolf, are found in the forests.

SECTION XXII.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

BELGIUM is divided into nine provinces, namely, Liege, Namur, Luxembourg, Hainault, South Brabant, East Flanders, West Flanders, Antwerp, and parts of Limburg.

The chief cities of Belgium are Brussels, its capital, Antwerp, Ghent, Luxembourg, Namur, Mons, Bruges, Ostend, and Liege.

The city of Brussels is built upon the river Senne, which enters the city by two branches, one of which passes by the old market-place, and the other crosses the garden of Chartreux. The town is partly erected on the side of a hill, and when seen from the west has the appearance of a fine amphitheatre. Brussels contains about 300 streets and squares, besides numerous lanes and courts. Among the ornaments of the city are the public fountains, which supply the inhabitants with water. Its chief public buildings are, the *Hotel de Ville*, the Palace of the Fine Arts, and the palaces of the King and the Prince of Orange. Several of the streets are wide and airy; the houses are lofty and well-built, and great care is taken to preserve their external neatness. Brussels is celebrated for its lace and carpets, and many other manufactures are prosecuted, among which are hats, stockings, calicoes, gold and silver lace, paper-hangings, porcelain, hardware, and various chemical preparations used in the arts. Near to Brussels is the celebrated site of Waterloo, where Napoleon

Buonaparte was utterly overthrown by the allied armies under the Duke of Wellington and Marshal Blucher. Its population exceeds 200,000.

Antwerp was anciently one of the richest and greatest trading cities in the world, but it is now greatly reduced. Ghent was the ancient capital of Flanders. It is divided by rivers and canals into twenty-six islands. Peace between England and America was signed here in 1814. Bruges was once the most celebrated city in Europe for the woollen manufacture; but it has now sunk into insignificance. Liege and Luxembourg are large cities, and they are chiefly noted for containing a great number of churches, and having manufactories of fire-arms.

The religion of the great bulk of the inhabitants of Belgium is the Roman Catholic, but all other sects are tolerated. The people of all religious persuasions, indeed, enjoy in this country the most perfect freedom in their modes of worship. Great attention is paid to education. There are three universities, several public schools in different towns, and numerous elementary schools throughout the provinces.

The chief manufactures of Belgium are those mentioned in the description of Brussels. At Antwerp, Ostend, and Ghent, there are some sugar refineries, and cutlery is made at Namur, and cannon at Liege. The chief exports of the country are oak-bark, flax, madder, clover-seed, spelter, sheep's-wool, lace, coal, arms, and corn.

Belgium has what is called a limited constitutional monarchy. The legislative power is vested in the king and two chambers—the Senate, and House of Deputies. The succession is limited to the male line. In default of a male heir, the king, with the consent of the chambers, may name a successor; and in default of such nomination, the throne is considered vacant.

DENMARK.

SECTION XXIII.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

DENMARK, the land or Mark of the Dane, is a kingdom lying to the south of Sweden and Norway, and to the north of the kingdom of Hanover. In its greatest length from north to south, it is about 304 miles; its breadth varies from about 33 to 106, the average being 66 miles; area 23,000. The whole extent of the coast of the kingdom is 1,110 miles, but many parts of this long coast line are almost useless, in consequence either of the want of deep water, or of the numerous banks, bars, and islands, which line it. The kingdom ranks among the secondary powers of Europe.

The surface of Denmark presents an almost uniform plain, elevated only a few feet above the level of the sea. The country possesses no mountains, but a range of hills traverses the whole peninsula, from north to south. The characteristics of the country are sand and heaths. Drift sand renders a considerable portion of the coasts uninhabitable. The inland parts of Jutland and the islands, however, are characterized by a rich marshy loam, and the latter especially are very fertile.

As no inland point in Denmark is more than forty miles from the sea, the country has no large rivers. The largest of the navigable rivers is the Eyder, which was considered the north-western boundary of the kingdom of the Franks in the days of Charlemagne. The country abounds in small lakes and inlets of the sea. There are four large canals, namely, the Eyder Canal, which connects the North Sea with the Baltic; the Steckenitz Canal in Lauenburg, which unites the Elbe with the Baltic; the Daneskiold Canal, on the island of Zealand; and the Odensee Canal, which connects Odensee, the capital of Fünen, with the Sea. There are several saline springs in various parts of the country, some of which are used for the promotion of health.

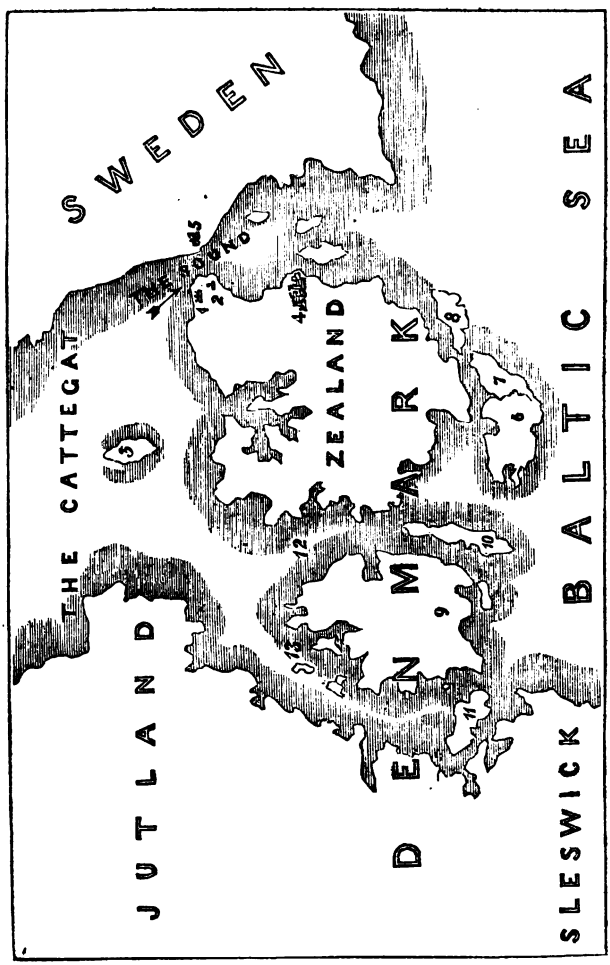
The annexed map exhibits the position of Denmark, and the figures therein refer to some of its islands and towns. These are — 1. Elsinore, a sea-port town; 2. Fredericksburg; 3. The island of Anholt; 4. Copenhagen; 5. Schonen, or Helsinborg; 6. The island of Laaland; 7. The island of Falster; 8. The island of Moen; 9. The island of Fünen; 10. The island of Rutkoping; 11. The island of Soderberg; 12. The Great Belt; 13. The Little Belt.

The proximity of the sea renders the climate of Denmark comparatively temperate, considering its northern latitude. The cold is greater in North Jutland, and least in the islands. In general the weather is very variable: rains and fogs are of constant occurrence, and storms are frequent. The humidity of the atmosphere, however, is highly advantageous to a country whose soil is of so sandy a nature.

Denmark may be called an agricultural state. The most fertile parts are the islands of Laaland and Falster, and next to them Zealand and Fünen. The most perfect tillage prevails in Holstein and Lauenburg, particularly in the former province. Its natural productions are wheat, rye, oats, barley, buck-wheat, peas, beans, rape-seed, flax, and hemp. The country produces the usual kinds of vegetables, and large crops of the commoner kinds of fruit. But little of the area of Denmark is covered with woods and forests; and many of these forests are going to decay, from want of care and from wasteful consumption. The principal trees in the forests are the pine, the beech, the oak, and the birch.

Denmark possesses no mines or metals, nor any minerals of importance except potter's clay, free-stone, and salt. Amber is collected on the western coast of Jutland, and in some parts excellent porcelain earths are obtained.

The rearing of horses and horned cattle is an object of great attention in Denmark. Large flocks of sheep are also kept, and swine are bred to a great extent. Poultry of all kinds are raised, and especially geese, about two


SWEDEN
THE CATTEGAT
JUTLAND
ZEALAND
DENMARK
BALTIC SEA
SLESWICK
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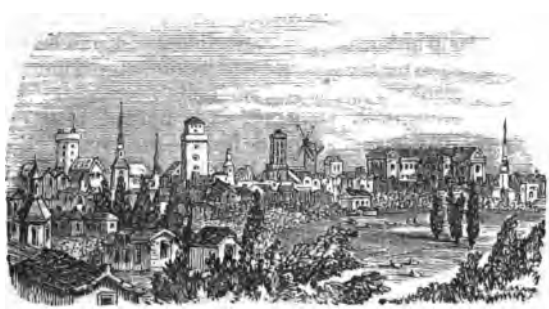
millions of which are killed annually. There is very little game, except in the forests, but great numbers of wild waterfowl are killed along the coasts. Much attention is given to the rearing and keeping of bees.

Fisheries form an essential branch of national industry in Denmark. Its bays, inlets, and rivers, abound in fish, and afford abundant and profitable employment to its inhabitants. The chief species are the herring, mackerel, cod, salmon, eels, flat-fish, and shell-fish. Seals are taken on the Jutland coast, and their fat is converted into oil.

SECTION XXIV.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE kingdom of Denmark consists of the following divisions; namely, Jutland, North and South; the duchies of Sleswick, Holstein, and Lauenburg; and the islands of Zealand, Fünen, Laaland, Falster in the Cattegat, and Bornholm in the Baltic.

The chief cities and towns of Denmark are—Copenhagen, the capital of the kingdom, Odensee, Elsinore, Aalborg, Rypen, and Flensburg.



COPENHAGEN.

Copenhagen is situated partly on the eastern coast of the island of Zealand, and the southern extremity of a gulf in the narrow channel of the Baltic, called the Sound.

It is divided into three districts—the Old Town, the New Town, and Christianshavn. The city contains many noble buildings, among which may be mentioned the royal palace of Christianberg, a magnificent palace-church, the royal palace of Rosenberg, and the Amalienborg, a structure composed of four large palaces. Its population is about 140,000.

The established religion of Denmark is the Lutheran; but other sects are partially tolerated. The affairs of the national Church are under the superintendence of eight bishops; the bishoprics are all in the gift of the crown. Much has been done for the education of all classes in Denmark. There are two universities, one in Copenhagen, and one at Kiel; and there are several thousand schools on the Lancasterian and other systems.

No country in Europe is more favourably situated for commerce than Denmark; it is the key of the Baltic, and possesses peculiar facilities for cheap commerce with all the maritime nations of Europe. Copenhagen is the central point of the Danish foreign trade. The exports of Denmark are chiefly grain, tallow, soap, butter, cheese, brandy, salted and smoked meats, horned cattle, horses, skins and hides, whale and train oils, eyder down, woollens, fish, and bristles. The value of the native produce and manufactures annually exported to all parts is about £2,340,000.

The government of Denmark is a limited monarchy, founded on three fundamental laws,—the Act of Sovereignty of 1661; the King's Law of 1665; and the Native Subjects' Law of 1776. By a decree of the 15th of May, 1834, the kingdom is divided into four electoral districts, each of which has its provincial assembly. These assemblies are called together at least once in two years, and their consent is necessary to all alterations in laws affecting property or life, public imposts, or requisitions for the national service. They are also allowed to propose laws for the king's adoption, and to impeach public authorities.

SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

SECTION XXV.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

SWEDEN and Norway occupy the whole of the Scandinavian peninsula. The kingdom is situated in the north of Europe, and is of vast extent. The length of the country from north to south is about 1200 miles; its width varies from about 150 to 400 miles. Its area is about 293,000 English square miles, which is a surface nearly equal in extent to that of France. The country is bounded on the north by Lapland, on the east by the Gulf of Bothnia, on the south by the Baltic, and on the west by the North Sea.

The whole country is very mountainous, and abounds with lakes and rivers. There are also many canals in different parts of the country. The only navigable rivers in Sweden are those which have been so rendered by art. The rivers west of the mountains have generally a short course; but east of that chain there are several which run above 300 miles; many of them present beautiful waterfalls. The northern rivers descend from the higher portion of the Kiölen range, and flow into the Gulf of Bothnia. There are also numerous lakes.

The climate of Sweden and Norway greatly varies; its difference arising chiefly from the difference of latitude and elevation above the sea level. The most northern point of the country lies 2½° beyond the polar circle; the most southern is situated nearly 11° to the south. A small portion of the country is so elevated that it is perpetually covered with snow, but large tracts along the sea-coast are only a few feet above the level of the sea. The winters are very cold, and the summers very hot. The heat of the summer is to be attributed to the long stay of the sun above the horizon, which in some places lasts more than three weeks. This circumstance enables the inhabitants of these northern countries to cultivate those plants which require a sudden heat; barley, for instance, is sown and reaped within seven weeks.

The chief productions of the fields of Sweden and Norway are wheat, rye, barley, oats, and mixed grain. Other objects of cultivation are potatoes, hemp, flax, tobacco, buck-wheat, caraway-seed, hops, and madder. These articles of consumption are in no instance grown over the whole face of the country. Thus, rye cannot be grown to advantage north of 66° N. latitude, and oats cease to ripen north of 64°, and up to this latitude wheat is cultivated in a few spots only. The climate and soil of Sweden and Norway, indeed, are less favourable to the growth of grain than in most other parts of Europe. It is said that in seven years one year occurs in which the crops wholly fail; that in three the produce is indifferent, and in three abundant. But with all the drawback of soil and climate, by an improved cultivation, Sweden and Norway have of late years grown sufficient grain for home consumption.

The forests of Sweden are very large, sometimes extending eighty miles in length; the woods, indeed, cover more than three-fourths of the surface of the country, but they contain comparatively a small variety of timber trees. Among the trees of the forest are the pine, fir, birch, beech, elm, lime, and oak. Large quantities of pine are imported to England from Norway. A large portion of the forests consists of bushes and underwood, which, as there is no coal, is used for firewood.

Nearly all the kinds of vegetables grown in England are cultivated in the southern provinces. In these parts, also, cherry, apple, and pear-trees are abundant; in the northern districts cranberries and other berries abound.

These countries are rich in minerals; they consist of silver, copper, iron, cobalt, alum, porphyry, and marble; the richest mines are those of silver, copper, and iron. The annual produce of the iron mines of Sweden is nearly 70,000 tons of bar iron, much of which is exported to England and other countries.

As the pasture grounds of Sweden are very poor, the animals are small in size, especially the horses. In these countries the ass is not found. Cattle and sheep are

numerous, and so are goats; in the northern districts rein-deer are kept by the Laplanders. Wild animals abound: they consist of bears, beavers, wolves, foxes, lynxes, gluttons, hares, squirrels, martens, and lemmings. Elk and deer are also found in some of the forests. The largest wild birds of Sweden are eagles, capercailzies and woodcocks. Water-fowl are very abundant, and amongst them the eider-duck. Fish abound in all the seas of Sweden, and the fishery in the Baltic particularly gives subsistence to a large number of families. The fish found in the lakes, rivers, and seas of Sweden are almost of every species which can be mentioned. Cod, herring, and the lobster are very numerous off the Norwegian coast, and are largely exported to England.

SECTION XXVI.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

SWEDEN is divided into three sections; the most southern of which is called Gothland; the central, more properly Sweden, or Swea Rike; and the northern, Nordland. Each of these divisions was anciently divided into provinces for the purposes of administration; but this division being found inconvenient, some of the provinces were divided into two or three districts. In the whole there are twenty-three districts, called governments. Norway also contains three divisions—viz., Soendenfelds, Nordenfelds, and Nordland.

The chief cities of Sweden are—Stockholm, its capital, Upsal, Gottenburg, and Carlscrona. Of Norway, Christiania and Bergen.

Stockholm is situated on the channel by which the lake Mœlar discharges its waters into the Baltic. It is built partly on the continent and partly on nine islands formed by the channel. The city contains several fine public and private buildings; and there is no capital in Europe, except Constantinople, which can be compared with it as regards the beauty of its environs. It is the most industrious and commercial town in Sweden. Commerce is carried on by its merchants with every European country and the United

States of North America. The population of Stockholm is above 100,000.

Upsal is famous for its university. Carlscrona is the station of the royal navy, and it has a harbour capable of containing 100 ships of the line. Christiania is the capital of Norway, and the residence of the regent. Its population is about 35,000. Bergen is on the coast, and has much trade and a good harbour.

The religion of Sweden is the Lutheran Protestant, under the Archbishop of Upsal and thirteen bishops. Sweden has two universities, one at Upsal and the other at Lund. It has also a large number of grammar schools; and there are regular elementary schools in most of the towns. In some parts there are parish schools, and some of the larger villages have their own schools. In general, however, the country children are instructed by ambulatory teachers, or by their parents during the long winter evenings.

Manufacturing industry has recently made great progress in Sweden. The most important manufactures are woollen cloths and other stuffs, tobacco, sugar, cottons, leather, cast-iron, linens, watches, ribands, and other articles. The total annual produce of the manufacturing industry of Sweden amounts to about £2,000,000. The commerce of Sweden may be considered extensive for a country scantily populated. The value of its exports is about £1,500,000, and that of the imports is frequently of greater value. Its principal exports are iron, timber, copper, cobalt, alum, tar, pitch, hemp, oil, paper, tree bark, tobacco, snuff, bricks, furs, and linens.

The government of Sweden is a limited monarchy. The crown is hereditary in the male line; and the king is required to profess the Lutheran religion. The foreign relations, the supreme administration of justice, and the command of the army, are vested in the king. He has also a negative voice in the resolutions of the diet, and a right to introduce measures for their deliberation. The king, however, cannot control the freedom of their delibe-

erations; nor can he impose new taxes, contract loans, or alienate any part of the territories of the kingdom.

NAPLES.

SECTION XXVII.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE portion of Italy hitherto designated as the kingdom of Naples occupies the southern half of the peninsula, being bounded on the north-west by the Papal state, and on every other side by the sea. Its greatest length, from the Tronto to Cape Spartivento, at the southern extremity of Calabria, is about 400 miles; its breadth varies from 125 to 65 miles. The area of the kingdom is estimated at about 31,600 square miles; its population is rather more than 9,000,000.

The main features of the physical geography of the country are the Apennines, which run through its centre, forming in several parts large masses and high table-lands; two extensive plains, Apulia and Campania; numerous valleys between the offsets of the Apennines; and a strip of low land along the coast, between the base of the mountains and the sea, varying in width from one to ten miles.

Among the rivers of this extensive district are the Liris, Volturno, Sarno, Sele, Crati, Basilicata, Ofanto, Carapella, Cervaro, Candelaro, and Pescara. The principal lake is that of Fucino, or Celano, in the centre of the peninsula, which is surrounded by mountains on every side. Among the mountains of the country may be mentioned Mounts Vesuvius and Etna, the latter of which is one of the most celebrated burning mountains in the world. Vesuvius is in the vicinity of Naples, which it frequently threatens to destroy by its eruptions. Etna is in Sicily.

The kingdom of Naples had a coast line of about 1,500 miles in length; but from the deficiency of tide, and want of commodious harbours, there is but little navigation.

The staple products of the district are corn, wine, oil, wood, and silk. The country produces most kinds of

fruits, as figs, lemons, chestnuts, almonds, oranges, pomegranates, melons, peaches, and apricots. Tobacco is cultivated near Lecce, saffron in Abruzzo, and the sugar-cane in Calabria. Flax, hemp, rice, and Indian corn, are also cultivated in various parts of the country. In some favoured spots, especially at the foot of Mount Vesuvius, and in some parts of Calabria, the soil appears to possess inexhaustible fertility.

The chief minerals are iron and coal. There is a rich iron mine near Stilo, in the farthest Calabria, which was worked for the government. Formerly, the Apennines were clothed with forests, but they have now in a great measure disappeared. The strip of low land along the coast is in many places marshy, and covered with underwood. Herds of black cattle and pigs exist in this region.

SECTION XXVIII.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

While forming the kingdom of Naples, it was divided for administrative purposes into thirteen provinces, which were subdivided into districts, and the districts into communes. Each province was administered by an "intendente," or king's lieutenant, appointed by the king, and changed every three years. In every province there was a council of notables, which assembled once a year to

BAY OF NAPLES.

examine the provincial accounts, and to promote local improvements.

The chief cities of the kingdom of Naples—or, as it was often called, "the kingdom of the Two Sicilies,"—are Naples the capital, Palermo, Catania, and Messina.

Naples is situated on the northern coast of a fine bay of the same name, partly on the slope, and partly on the foot of a range of hills which run obliquely to the shore. Viewed from the sea it appears in the form of two crescents, one on the east, and the other on the west. Like London, it is an open city, but it has barriers, or custom-house posts, at the principal avenues leading into the town, for the purpose of collecting the duty upon provisions. The principal buildings of the city are, the royal palace, the museum and library, and the churches, of which there are about two hundred. Few of the buildings of Naples, however, are in a good architectural style, for they are either overloaded with ornaments, or disproportionate in their parts. Naples has many charitable institutions, and many schools for the purposes of general and scientific education. The circumference of the city is about fifteen miles, and it contains about 600,000 inhabitants. Were it not for its being in the vicinity of the volcano of Vesuvius, which frequently threatens it with destruction, Naples would be the most delightful place for residence in the whole world.

Palermo is situated in the island of Sicily. This city has suffered greatly at various periods by earthquakes. It was in Palermo that the Norman king, Roger, first established silk manufactures by means of Greek prisoners of war.

The Roman Catholic religion was the only faith tolerated in the kingdom of Naples. For the purposes of public instruction there was an elementary school in every commune, a grammar-school in almost every town, a royal college in every head town of a province, and a university at Naples. This latter is well provided with professors.

The government of Naples was inhumanly despotic. The

Neapolitan monarch was of some consequence as an Italian, but of secondary importance as an European power. His annual revenue was about £1,000,000 sterling.

At present (November, 1860) the kingdom of Naples has revolted from its sovereign, Francis II., and through the prowess and patriotism of Garibaldi, and by the suffrages of the people, it now forms part of the kingdom of Italy. This state of things is the result of enormous cruelty and misrule on the part of the government lately overturned.

HANOVER.

SECTION XXIX.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE kingdom of Hanover is bounded on the north-west by the German Ocean, on the north by the Elbe, on the east and south-east by Prussia and Brunswick, on the south-west by Hesse-Cassel, Lippe, and Prussia, and on the west by Holland. The whole territory comprehends an extent of 150 miles from north to south, and nearly the same from east to west. Its area is about 14,570 miles.

The southern provinces of the country are mountainous: in that of Grubenhagen is the Hartz, and in Göttingen is the Solingerwald mountains. Lower ranges, uniting these, traverse Hildesheim and Calenberg; but from the cities of Hildesheim, Hanover, and Osnabruck, to the sea-coast, the whole country is one continuous plain. Between the mountains there are fertile valleys; and where the country slopes from the mountain to the plain, there is excellent arable land. Beyond the plain there is a large sandy tract, which is partly covered with heath and fir. In the lower tracts are great marshes, and the most productive parts are on the banks of the rivers.

The principal rivers of Hanover are the Elbe, the Weser, and the Ems, which receive numerous secondary streams in their course, and finally empty themselves into the German Ocean. The only lakes in the country are those

of Steinhudermeer, Dümersee, and Jordan, the latter of which is a subterraneous lake, so thickly overgrown with vegetation, that travellers can pass over it in wagons with perfect safety.

The climate of Hanover is mild and temperate, somewhat differing according to the relative situation of mountain or plain.

The chief employment of the inhabitants of the country of Hanover is in agriculture. Many of the provinces grow large quantities of every kind of grain. The country also produces flax, tobacco, hops, fruit, pulse, potatoes, and all kinds of vegetables. In the marsh land, the breeding of cattle receives much attention. East Friesland, especially, abounds in horned cattle, sheep, and horses. The large heaths of the Duchy of Lüneberg are also used as sheep walks, and when the heath is in blossom, the keepers of bees take their hives thither to extract its honied sweets. Timber abounds in Hanover, and large quantities are exported. The mountains are covered with forests of fir, red pine, and oaks, with other timber, The mountains also abound in mineral wealth.

SECTION XXX.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE kingdom of Hanover is divided into the six provinces of Hanover, Hildesheim, Lüneburg, Stade, Osnabruck, and Aurich, and the Mining Intendency of Clausthal. The total population of all these districts is about 1,900,000. As a member of the German confederation, Hanover is the fifth in rank, with four votes in the full council.

The chief cities are Hanover, the capital, Emden, Osnabruck, and Göttingen.

The city of Hanover, with a population of 45,000, is situated in an agreeable, well-cultivated plain on the river Leine, which is navigable from the city to its junction with the Weser. It consists of three parts, the Old Town, the Ægidian New Town, and the New Town on the left bank of the river. The most interesting buildings are the palace, the mint, the arsenal, the royal mews, the town-hall, and

the royal library. The city contains many charitable institutions, many elementary schools, a female school of industry, and a seminary for schoolmasters. The city and environs suffered greatly in the wars with France, and though great efforts have been made to repair the ravages committed by the French troops, traces of them are still visible. Many great men have resided in this city: Doctor Herschel was born here, and here died Zimmerman and the learned Leibnitz. In 1725 the alliance between England, France, and Russia, was signed here; and in 1745 the convention which preceded the peace of Dresden.

Göttingen is celebrated for its university, founded in 1734 by George II. Here died Heyne, the celebrated classical editor. Emden is a noted sea-port, situated at the mouth of the Weser.

The chief manufactures of Hanover are thread, linen, woollens, and calicoes. Its commerce is not so considerable as might be expected from its favourable situation and fine navigable rivers. It is chiefly confined to the exportation of the produce of the country, and to the importation of colonial articles, English manufactures, and French silks.

The established religion of Hanover is Protestant; other religions, however, are tolerated. Education is general throughout the country; and there are numerous poor-houses, workhouses, and charitable institutions.

WIRTEMBURG.

SECTION XXXI.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

The kingdom of Wirtemburg is situated on the south-west of Germany. On the east it is almost surrounded by the kingdom of Bavaria, and on the west by the Grand Duchy of Baden; these two states meeting on the northern frontier: on the south it is bounded by Switzerland and the Lake of Constance. Its greatest length from north to south is about 140 miles; its breadth from east to west about 100 miles; its area is stated at about 7,500 miles.

Wirtemburg is for the most part mountainous. Its chief mountains are the Swabian Alb and the Schwarzwald; the former of which runs from south-west to north-east, and the latter from south to north, parallel to the Rhine. In the Alb or Alp there are several large caverns; that of Nebelhöhle, near Pfüllurgen, is 600 feet long, and is divided into several chambers, some of them fifty feet high. Between the mountains are wide and fertile valleys. The diversity of mountain and valley, indeed, combined with the fertility of the soil and the luxuriance of the vegetation, render Wirtemburg worthy of being called "the garden of Germany."

The chief rivers of Wirtemburg are the Neckar and the Danube, both of which have numerous affluents. The Neckar rises at the foot of the Alb or Alp, in the south-west corner of the country, and falls into the Rhine; the Danube rises in Baden, and crosses the kingdom, in a north-easterly direction, to Ulm, and enters Bavaria.

The soil of Wirtemburg is extremely fertile, except in the higher regions of its mountains. Its climate is temperate and mild, with considerable difference arising from the elevation of some parts above the level of the sea. The north-west parts have a climate as warm as almost any part in Germany; but the summits of its mountains are too cold to produce corn, and are covered with forests and pastures.

The chief species of grain cultivated in Wirtemburg are spelt, maize, oats, barley, rye, and wheat. The other agricultural productions are peas, beans, vetches, flax, hemp, rape-seed, potatoes, poppies, hops, and tobacco. The cultivation of fruit is general throughout the kingdom. Almost all the high roads are bordered with fruit trees, but there is much room for improvement in the finer sorts. Vineyards are numerous, especially in the circle of the Neckar. Three descriptions of wine are made—the Neckar, Tauber, and Lake.

The domestic animals of Wirtemburg are horned cattle, horses, asses, sheep, swine, and goats. In the forests,

deer, foxes, badgers, wild cats, squirrels, martens, and weasels, are to be found. Poultry of every description is abundant, as are also game and wild fowl. There are but few birds of prey, but there are several species of owls, which are numerous. Singing birds abound in all the forests. The lakes and rivers yield a great variety of fish, which are a source of considerable profit. Bees are kept in several parts of the kingdom; and leeches and edible snails are bred in ponds kept for that purpose.

The metals and minerals of Wirtemburg are copper, lead, zinc, iron, marble, alabaster, free-stone, mill-stones, gypsum, quartz, garnets, tourmalins, amethysts, chrysolytes, rock crystal, agate, chalcedony, cornelian, opal, jasper, porcelain-earth, potters'-clay, basalt, chalk, fullers'-earth, marl, coals, and salt.

SECTION XXXII.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE only noted city of the kingdom of Wirtemburg is Stutgard, its capital, with a population of about 33,000. This city lies at the bottom of a valley, in the centre of the kingdom, and is surrounded on three sides by mountains and hills, which are covered with vineyards and gardens. The most remarkable buildings of Stutgard are the palace, where the monarch resides, several public institutions, the Gymnasium Illustre, the old palace, the opera-house, the royal mews, and the palace of the estates of the kingdom. Stutgard contains numerous public collections of works of art, and several libraries; it has also many schools for the poor, and charitable institutions of every description. The city is noted for its beautiful works in gold, silver, and bronze, and for its excellent mathematical, philosophical, optical, and musical instruments. It also contains manufactories of linen and woollen cloths, silk, cotton, gloves, carpets, and shawls.

The principal manufactures of the country are linen, woollen cloths, calicoes, silks, lace, hosiery, muslin, carpets, leather, porcelain, earthenware, every kind of article in steel and iron, and of gold and silver, tobacco, and gun-

powder. Painting, sculpture, engraving, and lithography, are greatly encouraged in Wirtemburg; and by a natural consequence, all these works of art have attained a high state of perfection.

The commerce of Wirtemburg is considerable and profitable: its exports consist of its natural productions and manufactures. The total amount of the export trade is about £2,500,000.

The religion of the population of Wirtemburg is chiefly Protestant, but there are many Roman Catholics. As regards education, no country can boast of better institutions for that high and holy purpose. There is not a parish without its school, and there is a university at Tubingen, seven gymnasia, four lyceums, seventy-eight Latin schools, about sixty evangelical theological seminaries, and twenty-four schools of philology and sciences. Wirtemburg, indeed, has always been one of the most enlightened countries of Germany, and it has given birth to many profound thinkers, and to some of the greatest poets and preachers in the world. This is the result of its good institutions for education.

Wirtemburg is an hereditary monarchy, and the king governs according to the existing constitution, which was completed in 1819. According to this constitution, Wirtemburg is a constitutional representative kingdom, with two chambers, which compose a diet or parliament. The chambers have a right of presenting addresses to the king, a share in the legislature, and the power of granting taxes: no law can be altered or abrogated without their consent.

BAVARIA.

SECTION XXXIII.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE kingdom of Bavaria is composed of the greater part of the former circles of Bavaria and Franconia, of certain districts of Swabia, the principalities of Ansbach and Baireuth, the bishoprics of Bamberg, Wurzburg,

Augsburg, Eichstädt, and Freisengen, and some parts of those of Mainz, Fulda, and Speyer. These territories lie in the south of Germany, on the north and south of the Danube, which river divides the country into north and south. The area of the whole country is about 31,000 square miles.

Bavaria is a mountainous country; its ranges forming part of the watershed of Europe. Not only is it walled in by lofty mountains on the north and south, but its interior is intersected by elevated ranges. It contains, however, many wide and fertile valleys, and numerous extensive plains, the face of which is frequently disfigured by swamps and morasses of great extent. The most romantic part of the country are the regions on the south-eastern borders, where Alpine heights, mountain torrents, lakes, and glaciers, combine to give them the appearance of a Swiss landscape.

The principal rivers of Bavaria are the Iser, the Inn, the Regnitz, the Rhine, the Danube, the Mayn, the Eger, the Saale, and the Fulda. There are numerous tributary streams; the Danube alone receives thirty-eight affluents in its course through the Bavarian territory. The chief lakes are those of Constanz, Chiem See, Ammer See, Stahrenberger See, Staffel See, Kochel See, Wurm See, and Tegern See. Bavaria also possesses several canals, but they are not of great magnitude.

The climate of Bavaria is in general temperate and healthy; in the mountainous districts it is cold and bleak, but it is milder in the plains and valleys, particularly in the parts adjacent to the river Mayn, which has a western course through the country.

The soil of Bavaria is very productive. Its chief products in grain are wheat, rye, barley, and oats. In some districts rice, spelt, maize, and buck-wheat, are cultivated. Next to grain, the vine and hop-plant are important objects of cultivation. In the circles of the Rhine and Retzat, quantities of tobacco are grown; and hemp and flax are cultivated in the south-east part of the

country. Mulberry-trees are grown for the purpose of feeding the silk-worm; and fruit is extensively raised, especially in the southern districts. In many parts, liquorice, aniseed, coriander, cummin-seed, saffron, and madder, are cultivated; so likewise are potatoes. The mountains of Bavaria are finely wooded: their trees are the oak, the beech, the pine, the fir, and the juniper. Potashes, tar, turpentine, and juniper-berries, are among the products of the Bavarian forests, some of which cover a surface of many thousand acres.

The domestic animals of Bavaria are horses, sheep, horned cattle, swine, goats, asses, and mules. Fowls, both domestic and wild, are abundant. The lakes and rivers abound in fish, the most noted kinds of which are the salmon of the Rhine, the trout of the Franconian streams, and the cray-fish of the Altmühl. In the circle of the Iser, where the largest inland waters exist, and along the banks of the Mayn and Rhine, many thousands derive subsistence from the fisheries.

The principal metals and minerals of Bavaria are iron, coals, and salt. Gold, silver, copper, quicksilver, cobalt, tin, lead, and antimony, are found in some parts of the country, though not to any great extent. There are numerous different sorts of marbles; and alabaster, rock crystal, carnelians, asbestos, and garnet, may be enumerated among the Bavarian minerals. Pearls are found in some of the minor streams. Mineral waters abound, but few of them are celebrated for their virtues.

SECTION XXXIV.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

BAVARIA is divided into the following provinces or circles, namely, the Iser, the Lower Danube, the Regen, the Upper Danube, the Retzat, the Upper Mayn, and the Lower Mayn. These circles form a compact state, commonly called the territory of the Danube and Mayn; and that circle or portion distinct from these is the territory of the Rhine. Population about 4,500,000.

The chief cities of Bavaria are Munich, the capital of the kingdom, Ratisbon, Wurzburg, Nuremburg, and Augsburg.

Munich is situated on the west bank of the Iser, in a plain, which is bounded on the east by a low range of hills. It is a city of great antiquity, and is one of the handsomest in all Germany. The buildings of note which it contains are numerous and splendid; it must suffice to say that they consist of palaces, literary and scientific institutions, museums, cathedrals, places of amusement, charitable institutions, and monuments. As works of architecture, many of the public buildings of Munich can vie with any in Europe. Nor is it merely as works of architecture that they are worthy monuments of art; painting, sculpture, fresco, and, in some instances, polychromy, have been unsparingly employed to embellish them. Munich is also celebrated for its manufactures, among which may be mentioned linen, woollen cloth, damask, silk, ribands, household furniture, articles of silver and gold, pianofortes, playing-cards, coaches, leather, and mathematical, surgical, optical, and astronomical instruments. The environs of the city of Munich are very pleasant, and contain numerous noted places of public resort and amusement. It also possesses a university. The city is surrounded with a rampart, and has seven gates leading to the suburbs. The population of the city is about 100,000.

Ratisbon and Augsburg, noted for its Protestant Confession of 1530, are both places of consequence. The celebrated astronomer, Kepler, died at Ratisbon, as did also Maximilian II., styled the German Titus.

Bavaria is essentially an agricultural country; its manufactures, though numerous, are not important. That of linens is the chief, but the majority of the articles made are of a very coarse description. The other manufactures are cottons, paper, paper-hangings, glass, porcelain, arms, leaf-gold, silver, leather, and optical instruments. The commerce of Bavaria is somewhat extensive: its principal

exports are grain, salt, timber, potashes, liquorice-root, seed, hops, cattle, sheep, swine, fish, flax, and several of the above-mentioned manufactures.

No predominant national Church is recognised in Bavaria. The Edict of religion of the 16th of May, 1848, establishes full liberty of conscience, and gives to both Roman Catholics and Protestants an equality of civil rights. The number of Roman Catholics is as two to one to that of Protestants. The education of the people is under the immediate superintendence of the Superior Board of Education and Ecclesiastical Affairs, attached to the ministry of home affairs. Schools of every description, for the rich and the poor, abound throughout the kingdom; those for the latter are liberally aided by government.

By the charter of 1818, the kingdom of Bavaria is declared a sovereign monarchical state, and the legislative power is vested in two chambers, conjointly with the king, as head of the state. The succession is hereditary in the male line, according to the right of primogeniture, with a proviso that on the extinction of the direct heirs male, the next male descendants of the female line shall succeed. The two chambers composing the legislature are called Senators and Deputies; the former consists of princes, nobles, the great officers of the crown, bishops, &c.; the latter, of deputies from the universities, and from cities and market towns, landed proprietors, and ecclesiastics, both Roman Catholic and Protestant; this chamber is re-elected every six years.

SAXONY.

SECTION XXXV.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE kingdom of Saxony was formed of the electorate of the same name. It is divided into two unequal portions by the river Elbe. The eastern and smaller portion comprehends the south-west part of the country, formerly

called Lusatia; and the western, or larger portion of Saxony, is situated west of the river Elbe. The face of the country is alternately hill, valley, and plain. Some of the mountains in the eastern portion have elevated summits, and there are two or three of great elevation in the western portion; but for the most part the hills of Saxony are isolated and low. Some of the plains are very fruitful, but some of them are sandy and unfit for cultivation. The climate of the country greatly varies, arising from the circumstance that its lowest point is only 286 feet above the level of the sea, while the highest attains nearly 4,000 feet. The kingdom is bounded on the north by Prussia, on the south-east by Austria, and on the west by the Saxon principalities.

The principal river of Saxony is the Elbe, which is navigable for large river boats through the whole of its course, as far as it lies within the boundaries of the country. The tributaries which fall into this noble river are the Black Elster, from the east; and the Freyberger, the Zwickauer Mulda, and the White Elster, from the west.

The chief natural productions of Saxony are corn, potatoes, rapeseed, hops, flax, hemp, chicory, tobacco, madder, woad, saffron, poppies, and other medicinal herbs. Culinary vegetables are abundant, and large quantities are exported. Fruit is much cultivated, and is a never-failing source of wealth to the inhabitants: with the exception, indeed, of the mountain districts, Saxony resembles a vast orchard. The mountain districts are covered with forests, consisting chiefly of pine and fir; other forest trees, as the beech, birch, maple, elm, ash, and oak, are comparatively rare.

The domestic animals of Saxony are horses, horned cattle, sheep, swine, and goats. Domestic poultry is very abundant. Foxes and hares are very common; and the wild boar, lynx, and wild cat are sometimes met with. Birds of prey, except eagles, are rarely seen; but bustards, storks, heathcocks, pheasants, partridges, wild geese, ducks, and swans, are numerous. Of all the productions of the

animal kingdom, the most important is the breed of Merino sheep, which supplies large quantities of fine wool for exportation.

Minerals abound in Saxony; they consist of gold, copper, iron, lead, arsenic, bismuth, nickel, zinc, antimony, quicksilver, calamine, rock crystal, amethyst, carnelian, garnets, diamonds, jasper, chalcedony, Labrador stone, potters'-earth, porcelain-clay, serpentine, granite, marble, alabaster, porphyry, amber, sulphur, alum, saltpetre, and coal.

SECTION XXXVI.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

SAXONY is divided into five provinces, called circles, namely, Meissen, Leipsic, Erzgebirge, Voigtland, and Lusatia; and these provinces are subdivided, for the purposes of administration, into forty-two bailliwicks.

The chief cities of Saxony are Dresden and Leipsic.

Dresden, the capital of the kingdom of Saxony, is situated on both banks of the river Elbe. It does not rank among the largest, but it is one of the most agreeable and interesting capitals of Europe. Its population is about 120,000. It is divided into these three parts—Dresden Proper, Friedrich's Stadt, and the Neustadt, or New Town. Among its most remarkable buildings are the Royal Palace, which is 1,300 paces in circuit, the Bruhl Palace, the bridge of the Elbe, the Japanese Palace, and the Palace of Princes. Dresden abounds in public buildings, and both the city and its environs are full of attractions for strangers. Its gallery of paintings, collection of statuary, museums of antiquities, and specimens of natural history, are very beautiful and extensive. It has no external trade of importance, but it is a place of transit for colonial and other produce, and has six general fairs for traffic. Dresden has been twice captured by the King of Prussia, and near it fell, in 1813, the celebrated General Moreau.

Leipsic is chiefly noted for its great fairs (especially of books) and its university. Here, in 1813, the allied armies defeated the French; and at the same time the

King of Saxony with his whole court were taken prisoners. Here Leibnitz was born. Population 70,000.

Next to England and the Netherlands, Saxony, considering its population, has the most extensive manufactures. The principal are those of linen, thread-lace, woollen, silk, cotton, and paper. There are also breweries, tanneries, and distilleries, in almost all the towns. The manufactures connected with the mines are of great importance, especially at Freiburg, which is the central point of this kind of industry. It has also foundries of cannon and balls. There are other manufactures for verdigris, straw-bonnets, and mats, which employ a great number of the inhabitants.

There is no state religion in Saxony: the great body of the people are Lutherans. The kingdom holds a high rank with regard to the excellence of its institutions for education. Besides superior schools, there are free schools for the poor in every town, and numerous societies for the promotion of various branches of art and science in the chief cities.

The constitution is a limited monarchy, with a representation divided into two chambers, without the consent of which no law can be issued, altered, or authentically interpreted. The executive power is in the hands of the king, and in cases of emergency he may issue ordinances without the consent of the chambers. The crown is hereditary in the male line of the Albertine House of Saxony: if that becomes extinct, it then devolves on the house of Weimar, and then on that of Gotha. Saxony is a member of the German confederation; it has the fourth place in the German Diet, and has four full votes in council.

SARDINIA.

SECTION XXXVII.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE kingdom of Sardinia comprises the principality of Piedmont, the duchies of Milan, Parma, Modena, and Genoa, the Grand Duchy of Tuscany, and the island of Sardinia.

Piedmont is strongly situated among the Alps, and derives its name from its situation at the foot of the mountains. Its surface is greatly diversified by hill and dale, and it is as fertile as any part of Italy. The province produces corn, wine, fruits, and truffles, or subterranean mushrooms, in great abundance. The neighbourhood of Turin, its chief town, is noted for its fine mulberry-trees, which are cultivated for the breeding of silk-worms.

Genoa, formerly a celebrated republic, is situated on the south of Piedmont and Parma, bordering on the Mediterranean Sea. It is about 150 miles in length, but only from 8 to 20 miles in breadth. Its surface is mostly rocky, but the industry of its inhabitants has taken advantage of every spot of cultivatable ground. Its chief productions are oranges and lemons, light wines, and chestnuts. Maritime trade, fishing and manufactures, however, constitute the chief resources of the population.

The Duchy of Milan formed the north-western part of Lombardy, belonging to Austria, till in the late war it was annexed to Sardinia. The country in general is fertile, and well cultivated; the chief productions are silk and wine.

Parma is situated between the Gulf of Genoa and Milan, and in its general features differs little from the latter.

Modena lies to the east of Parma. It has a very productive soil, and a genial climate.

Tuscany forms the southern part of Sardinia, and lies immediately contiguous to the States of the Church. It is a large and wealthy district, very productive naturally, and peopled by a fine enterprising population.

Sardinia is a large island in the Mediterranean, about 140 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, leaving out the projections. The island is very mountainous, and some of the higher districts are of volcanic formation. Between the mountains there are various extensive plains, some of which are, however, disfigured by unwholesome marshes. So unhealthy are the plains from this circumstance, that

in summer they are almost depopulated by the migrations of the inhabitants to avoid the fatal effects of malaria. One-third of the country consists of wastes; another third is occupied by forests or natural pastures; and the remaining third consists of corn-fields, olive-grounds, orchards, and gardens. Among the fruit-trees of Sardinia are the fig, the vine, the apple, apricot, almond, prickly pear, oranges, lemons, and citrons. Vegetables are fine and plentiful; peas and cabbage grow wild, in the greatest luxuriance. Saffron is cultivated; and so are also tobacco and flax. Sardinia is well provided with forests, the timber of which consists of the oak, beech, chestnut, pine, and cork trees. The domestic animals are horses, cattle, sheep, goats, and swine: some of the forests abound in wild hogs and game. In ancient times Sardinia was noted for its mines, and the following minerals are still found; namely, quicksilver, iron, lead, porphyry, basalt, alabaster, marble, chalcedonies, jasper, cornelians, sardonyx, turquoises, rock crystal, and alum. The fisheries of Sardinia are very productive, especially the "tonnare," or establishments for taking tunny fish. Coral is taken off the west and south coasts; and it is polished and worked into necklaces, earrings, and other ornaments.

SECTION XXXVIII.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE continental territories of the kingdom of Sardinia are divided into several governments, each of which is administered by a political officer, called Intendente, appointed by the king. The island of Sardinia is at present administered by a viceroy, appointed by the king for three years. It has also a representative parliament, called Stamenti, consisting of three orders or estates; namely, ecclesiastics, the military, and representatives of towns.

The chief cities of the kingdom of Sardinia are Turin, in Piedmont; Genoa, in Genoa; Florence and Leghorn, in Tuscany; and Cagliari, in the island of Sardinia.

Turin is the capital of the kingdom of Sardinia, and the residence of the Sardinian monarch. It lies in a wide and

fertile valley between the Cottian Alps and the hills of Montferrato, which rise above the eastern bank of the Po. It is one of the most regularly built towns in Europe, and contains several magnificent buildings; among which may be mentioned the royal palace, the Cathedral of S. Giavanno Battista, and the university, which was built by King Victor Amadeus, at the beginning of the eighteenth century. It has also several noted academies for philosophical and scientific purposes, as well as several charitable institutions. It has likewise several theatres; and it contains a great number of churches, few of which, however, are remarkable for their external architecture. Its manufactures are of considerable importance; they consist of woollens, silks, hosiery, leather, paper, chinaware, carriages, and tapestry, or gobelins. Its population is about 170,000.

Genoa is one of the most splendid cities of Italy. It rises from the shore like an amphitheatre; and when viewed from the sea, presents an architectural spectacle scarcely to be equalled in the world. It is six miles in circumference, and is rich in superb marble palaces and churches. This city was taken by the English and their allies, in 1800, when 20,000 of its inhabitants perished from famine. Anterior to that period it had been several times captured; its first capture being by Mago, the Carthaginian, in the second Punic war. Cagliari, in the island of Sardinia, is a well-built city, and is the residence of the viceroy of the kingdom. Florence, the capital of Tuscany, stands on the Arno, which flows through the city. It is one of the finest cities in the world; its cathedral is a magnificent building; and its numerous churches, palaces, and public buildings, give it an imposing aspect. Its splendid collections of works of art, both in sculpture and painting, are greatly celebrated.

Leghorn is one of the most important seaports of Italy on the Mediterranean, and the emporium of the commerce of the country. Opposite to it lies the island of Melora, which serves as a break-water to the roadstead between it and the mainland. Ship-building is carried on extensively

at Leghorn, and this, combined with its commerce, renders the city a scene of busy industry. It is well built, with wide streets. It has many churches, and a fine cathedral.

The staple products of the continental Sardinian territories are silk, rice, hemp, wine, and oil. The whole exports amount to about 50,000,000 francs. The principal manufactures consist of paper, silks, woollens, linen, glass, and cotton-yarn.

The State religion of the Sardinian kingdom is the Roman Catholic; but Protestantism is tolerated. Public instruction is afforded by the royal and communal colleges. In every province there are one or more royal colleges, and in many towns there is a communal college, besides grammar schools. Elementary education, however, is not in such a thriving condition as collegiate and scientific instruction; most communes have schools for boys, but there is no general or uniform system of instruction.

The government of the Sardinian states is a constitutional monarchy. All laws are enacted by representatives, freely chosen by the people, in concert with the senate, which is composed of the king's ministers and the nobility. Indeed, the constitution of Sardinia greatly resembles our own.

SWITZERLAND.

SECTION XXXIX.— PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

SWITZERLAND, the ancient Helvetia, is a small mountainous country between Germany, Austria, France, and Italy. Its greatest length is about 210 miles, and its greatest breadth about 140 miles. The area of Switzerland is about 16,000 square miles.

The surface of Switzerland presents a greater variety than most countries of Europe. The highest of its mountains, Mount Rosa, attains an elevation of 15,154 feet above the sea level, while the surface of the Lago Maggiore, on the southern boundary, is only 678 feet above the sea. The greater part of the country is mountainous.

In the southern and south-east districts, the ranges of the Alps and their off-sets extend over about one-half of the country, while along its western boundary run the ridges of the Jura Mountains. Between these two mountain systems, the country towards the south has the form of a plain, interspersed with hills, and towards the north it is traversed by ridges, or groups of hills of moderate elevation. Switzerland, therefore, is naturally divided into four regions, the Alps, the plain, the hilly country, and the Jura Mountains.

The chief rivers of Switzerland are the Rhine, the Rhone, and the Aar; the most celebrated lakes, those of Constance, Geneva, Neufchatel, Zurich, and Lucerne.

The climate of Switzerland is extremely unequal, and subject to violent changes, though in general it is very healthy. The summits of the Alpine mountains are covered with eternal snow, but the climate of the lower districts approaches very near in mildness to that of Lombardy.

The chief agricultural productions of Switzerland are wheat, barley, rye, oats, maize, buck-wheat, flax, and hemp. Its chief fruits are the grape, apple, pear, plum, and cherry. In some parts the mulberry, chestnut, walnut, olive, fig, peach, almond, and pomegranate trees, are cultivated. Vegetables of every description are grown throughout the country, especially the carrot, beet, turnip, and other roots. The highlands of Switzerland abound in timber trees, particularly firs, maple, beech, larch, birch, and oaks. The Alps contain a rich and inexhaustible supply of summer pasture, and a large proportion of land in the valleys and plains is kept as grass fields, and mown for winter fodder.

The domestic animals of Switzerland are similar to our own. The game consists chiefly of chamois, hares, marmots, and partridges. Bears and wolves are found in the Alps and the Jura, and birds of prey of large dimensions, including the eagle and vulture, make their nests in the mountains. The lakes and rivers of Switzerland abound

with fish, as trout, tench, carp, perch, and eels, trout being the most abundant.

The chief minerals of Switzerland are iron, lead, and zinc. Salt-springs abound, but they are generally neglected. Its various mineral waters are much frequented by invalids in the summer season.

SECTION XL.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

SWITZERLAND is divided into twenty-two sovereign states, called Cantons, which form a confederacy for their mutual support and defence. All affairs of government are settled by the Diet, to which every canton sends a certain number of members, according to its importance.

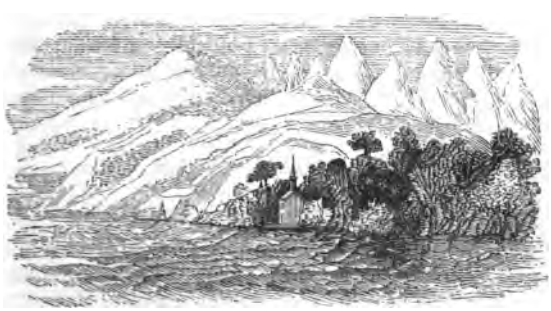
The chief cities of Switzerland are Berne, the capital, Geneva, Basle, Lausanne, Zurich, and Lucerne.

Berne is a handsome city, almost encompassed by the river Aar. It is noted as the birth-place of the celebrated Haller, who was born here in 1702. Basle is pleasantly situated on the banks of the Rhine, and it contains the remains of the learned Erasmus. Holbein, Buxtorf, and Euler, were natives of this city. Zurich, situated on the borders of a lake of the same name, is a city greatly celebrated in history. Among its most celebrated natives may be mentioned Solomon and Conrad Gessner, Burckhardt, the enterprising traveller, and the great Lavater. Geneva is situated near the Leman Lake, on the confines of France and Switzerland; it is chiefly celebrated for its religion, laws, and learning. It was to this city that the great Calvin retired when he was driven from France; here he promulgated his system of doctrine and discipline, and here he died and was buried. Beza also died at Geneva, and in this city was born Rousseau, Le Clerc, Francis le Fort, and De Lolme,—all celebrated for their erudition and writings. Lausanne is situated near the lake of Geneva; it is noted for the charms of its society, which has rendered it a favourite resort for men of leisure and cultivation. Here Gibbon wrote his history. Lucerne is beautifully situated on a lake of the same name,

Here, in 1758, a body of 1500 men made a last effort to resist the arms of France.

Switzerland is and has been a manufacturing country for centuries. Every canton has its peculiar branch of trade. Geneva, for instance, is celebrated for its watches, jewellery, wood-carving, and musical boxes; though it contains other branches of manufacture, as saddlery, lithography, engraving, cutlery, fire-arms, and enamels. In the canton of Zurich, the chief manufactures are those of silks, florentines, gros-de-Naples, taffetas, serges, levantines, silk-handkerchiefs, and ribbons. The cantons of St. Gall and Appenzell produce cottons, muslins, prints, glass, and goldsmiths' ware; and Schaffhausen is noted for its manufacture of steel and files. The trade of Switzerland is founded upon the principle of free trade and free transit with foreign countries; a system which should become universal.

As regards religion, Switzerland is divided into Protestant Switzerland, and Roman Catholic Switzerland; that is, in some cantons the Protestant, and in others the Roman Catholic religion is professed. In ancient times this diversity of faith gave rise to strife and bloodshed, especially at the time of the Reformation. At the present time, however, a kind of truce prevails; each canton is



TELL'S CHAPEL, SWITZERLAND.

allowed to profess its own faith tolerably unmolested. The Protestant population consists of three-fifths of the whole, and the Roman Catholic of two-fifths; the number of the Protestants, therefore, greatly preponderating. In the canton of Uri is the celebrated chapel of Tell, erected near the spot where he is said to have escaped from Hermann Gessler, one of the bailiffs of Albert I., as he was conveying him across the lake of Waldstätden to the castle of Küssnacht.

There are two universities in Switzerland—namely, those of Basle and Zurich. Geneva, Burne, and Lausanne have each an academy, in which degrees of divinity, law, and arts are granted. That of Geneva is particularly celebrated as numbering among its teachers some of the most learned and pious men of the time, as D'Aubigne, Gaussen, Vinet, and others. Elementary instruction has been greatly extended of late years, especially in the cantons of Basle, Zurich, Neufchatel, Schaffhausen, Geneva, and Vaud. Some of the cantons have schools for training schoolmasters.

The Swiss have always been inclined to the military profession. Their institutions, indeed, require every young man to be drilled, and to serve in the militia, which has the effect of strengthening their propensity for feats of arms. There is for all Switzerland a "federal military commission" appointed by the Diet, and renewed every three years. This commission consists of a president and four members, and their duty is to inspect the contingent and reserve of the various cantons, as well as all the existing military schools.

THE IONIAN ISLES.

SECTION XLI.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE Ionian Islands are the seven islands of Corfù, Cephalonia, Zante, Santa Maura, Ithaca, Paxo, and Cerigo. They are scattered along the coast of Albania, Hellas, and the Morea.

Corfù lies off the coast of the ancient Epirus. The surface of this island is 227 square miles, and it is generally mountainous, except in the north part. The mountains are rocky and naked, but the valleys are very fertile. The island produces wine, oil, vegetables, fruit, flax, and some corn and pulse. There are but few timber trees on the island. The cattle consists of horses, mules, sheep, and pigs; the game, of snipes, quails, and pigeons. There are few minerals on the island; but salt is obtained from the salt-marshes, which communicate with the sea. Corfù, the capital, is strongly fortified.

Cephalonia is situated opposite the gulf of Patras, and is the largest of the seven Ionian islands. Its area is about 348 square miles. A calcareous ridge runs across the island from north-west to south-east, and its lower projections cover nearly all the island, and, in many places, jut out into the sea. The only plain in the island lies between Argostoli and Livato, and is six miles in length. The chief produce of the island is currants, but there are likewise oil, cotton, oranges, lemons, figs, carobs, and melons. The domestic animals of this island are horned cattle, sheep, goats, and horses. The sea abounds with fish; and wild pigeons, and other game, swarm in the mountains.

In Zante, another of the Ionian islands, there are two considerable chains of mountains. The principal chain extends from Cape Kierri, as far as Cape Skinari; and the inferior chain extends from Cape Geraka nearly in a direct line along the northern coast, till it is lost in the spurs of the other range opposite the bay of the Salines. An extensive plain extends along the bottom of the Gulf of Kierri, from Mount Skopo, to the mountains which terminate at Cape Kierri. The island abounds in olive-yards, vineyards, and gardens; oranges, pomegranates, citrons, peaches, and melons, are grown. The island also produces wheat, maize, barley, and many vegetables. The principal article of export is currants. The animals of this island are similar to those of Corfù and Cephalonia; its chief minerals are bitumen and salt.

Santa Maura lies off the west coast of Hellas. The surface of this island is covered with calcareous hills; one summit of which, called Mount St. Elias, attains the height of 3,000 feet. In the north-east part there is a fine plain, about six miles long and two miles wide, which produces corn, flax, cotton, pulse, and every species of fruit. Sheep and goats are bred in this island, and mules are used for riding and carrying burdens. One great resource of the inhabitants is fishing. Salt is collected in large quantities in the lagoons.

Ithaca, celebrated in ancient poetry as the country of Ulysses, is situated north-east of Cephalonia. The island for the most part is rocky and hilly, but on the east coast there is a deep bay, the country around which is planted with vines, olive, and orange-trees. In the small deep valleys between the hills, the soil also is good, and produces currants, grapes, corn, oil, and all kinds of fruits. The cultivation of the soil, fishing, and some coasting trade, form the occupation of the population. They export currants, oil, and wine.

Paxo lies south-south-east of Corfù. It is a rocky island, and is chiefly planted with olive-trees, which produce the best oil in the Ionian islands.

Cerigo, the ancient Cythera, lies south of the coast of the Morea. It is about twenty miles long from north to south, and ten miles in its greatest breadth. The area of the island is 116 English square miles. It is mountainous and rocky; but there are several small valleys and dales, which are highly cultivated. It produces excellent grapes, oranges, lemons, and other fruits, as well as corn and cotton. Cerigo is better stocked with cattle than any other of the Ionian islands;—they consist of horned cattle, goats, sheep, asses, and horses. None of these islands possess any river of note; there are numerous small mountain streams, but these are generally dry in summer.

SECTION XLI.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Neither of the Ionian islands possesses any city of note,

though each contains a chief town, in which the local authorities reside. Corfù, in the island of Corfù, is the capital of the islands, and is the residence of the Archbishop of the Greek-Latin Church, of the senate, of the high court of appeal for all the islands, as well as the civil, criminal, and commercial courts for Corfù. This city contains an university.

The principal exports of the Ionian islands are olive-oil and currants; though they also export wines, spirits, and soap, and other articles of minor importance. The total value of their exports in 1833 was 250,669*l.*

The religion of the population of these islands is that of the Greek Church. Education receives much attention. Many of the schools are conducted entirely at the public expense, but there are others in which the expense is defrayed by the parents of the children.

The present constitution of the Ionian islands was proclaimed in 1818, under the sanction of Great Britain. The civil government is composed of a legislative assembly, and of a senate, under the control of a lord-high-commissioner, who is appointed by the king or queen of Great Britain, and possesses the power of convoking, proroguing, and dissolving the parliament. All bills adopted by parliament must receive his sanction before they can come into operation. He likewise commands the armed force of the islands, which consists of a British establishment of about 3,000 men, and four regiments of native militia. In each of the islands there is a regent, or chief civil and political officer, appointed by the senate, and likewise a resident, appointed by the lord-high-commissioner. There is, also, in every island, a municipal council, named by the nobles, the regent being the *ex-officio* president of the council.

THE GERMAN STATES.

SECTION XLIII.—PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

The German States consist of the Grand Duchies of

Baden, Hesse Darmstadt, Mecklenburg, and Oldenburg; the Duchies of Nassau, Brunswick, Saxe-Coburg, &c.

The Grand Duchy of Baden is bounded by the Rhine on the west, by Switzerland on the south, by Wurtemburg on the east, and by Hesse Darmstadt on the north. Its whole area is about 5,700 miles. The larger portion of this state is of a mountainous or hilly character, but it is interspersed with pleasant and fertile valleys. The soil is generally productive, but more particularly in the valley of the Rhine, and the country adjacent to the Neckar. Its chief mountains are those of the Schwarzwald, or Black Forest, and the Odenwald. Its chief rivers are the Danube, Neckar, and others, which mostly flow westward, through picturesque valleys, and discharge themselves into the Rhine. Baden has been justly termed the "Eden of Germany." Though one-third of its surface is covered by the Black Forest, it possesses a soil favourable to the growth of grain, wine, and fruit, and is full of noble forests and navigable streams. The grand duchy is also rich in metals and minerals of various kinds, and of mineral waters. Much attention is paid by its population to the breeding of cattle; and most of its lakes and rivers are rich in fish.

The chief towns of Baden are Carlsruhe, the capital, Manheim, and Frieburg.

The religion of Baden is partly Roman Catholic and partly Protestant, or the Lutheran and Reformed-Lutheran persuasions. The diffusion of sound instruction has long been an object of concern with the Baden government. Roman Catholic and Protestant schools are established throughout the duchy, for the education of the poor as well as for the upper classes.

The government of Baden is monarchical and representative. The executive and judicial powers are vested in the grand duke; and the legislative is shared by him with an upper and a lower chamber of representatives. The house of Baden is one of the oldest families in Germany; it traces its descent from the ancient dukes of

Allemania, who flourished in the seventh and eighth centuries.

Hesse Cassel, or Lower Hesse, lies to the north-west of Bavaria, and contains an area of 4,350 square miles. The face of the country is generally hilly, but it contains numerous valleys and some extensive plains. Its soil is not of great fertility, but it can by no means be called sterile. In some parts it produces corn, maize, pulse, and potatoes, in great abundance; and tobacco, hemp, madder, hops, and rape-seed, are among its products. Hesse abounds in mineral wealth, and its forests produce fine timber, especially the red pine and fir. The breeding of cattle is general in Lower Hesse, and domestic poultry and game are very abundant.

The chief towns of Lower Hesse are Cassel, its capital, Hanau, Fulda, and Marburg, in the latter of which is an university.

The great majority of the inhabitants are Protestants, but the Roman Catholics are fully tolerated. As in Baden, so in Lower Hesse, education is universal.

As a member of the German confederation, Hesse Cassel is the eighth in rank. Its constitution is the most liberal in all Germany. The estates form only one chamber, and the electoral dignity is hereditary in the male line.

Hesse Darmstadt joins Hesse Cassel on the north. This duchy is similar both in appearance and productions to Hesse Cassel. Its chief towns are Darmstadt, the capital, Ments, and Worms. The latter town is noted for a diet held there in 1521, at which the great German reformer, Luther, assisted in person. The government of this grand duchy is monarchical and representative. The majority of the inhabitants are Lutherans and Calvinists, but there is a large body of Roman Catholics, and a few of other sects. In education, Hesse Darmstadt is not so forward as some other German states, but there has been of late very considerable improvement in this respect.

Hesse Homburg was formerly a part of the landgraviate

of Hesse Darmstadt. It contains about 184 square miles, and is divided into two lordships—that of Homberg, and that of Meisenheim. Its chief towns are Homburg vor der Höhe, and Meisenheim; the former of which is situated under an eminence, on which the palace of the landgrave is erected, commanding an extensive prospect of great beauty. The supreme power is vested in a hereditary landgrave. There is no assembly of estates.

The Grand Duchy of Nassau is bounded by the Prussian Rhenish provinces, and by the different states of Hesse. Its whole area is about 1,900 square miles. The country is generally mountainous and hilly, but, nevertheless, some parts produce fine wheat and rye, and fruit is raised in great perfection, and large quantities are exported. The boast of Nassau is its wine, of which there are several kinds. The chief source of the wealth of the inhabitants is derived from the breeding of horned cattle, sheep, swine, horses, and goats. Nassau contains several valuable minerals, and the smelting and manufacture of metals is carried on to a considerable extent. This duchy is divided into three provinces. Its chief towns are Weilburg and Wiesbaden. In respect to religion, the number of Protestants and Roman Catholics is nearly equal. The duke was formerly an absolute sovereign, but a representative constitution has been introduced, with two chambers, which have larger powers than those of some other German states.

The principalities of Saxony lie between Hesse Cassel and the kingdom of Saxony in distinct parts, as Weimar, Gotha, Coburg, Schwarzburg, and Reuss. The chief of these is the Grand Duchy of Weimar, the chief town of which, Weimar, contains the ducal palace.

The lands of which the Duchy of Brunswick is composed principally consist of three large unconnected districts, lying on the banks of the Aller, Ocker, Leine, and Weser, in the north-west part of Germany. The surface of this territory is alternate hill and plain, and its soil is fertile in corn. Its productions are wheat, barley, oats, rye, peas,

beans, potatoes, hops, rape-seed, and flax. Wood is one of the staple products of Brunswick, and the country is also rich in minerals.

Brunswick, the capital of the duchy, is situated upon both banks of the Ocker. It is the residence of the Brunswick sovereigns, and their seat of government. Its manufactures are of importance; they chiefly consist of woollens, linen, lackered and hardware, tobacco, chicory, glauber salts, mineral colours, china, *papier maché*, leather, coloured papers, brandy, and liqueurs.

The religion of the inhabitants of the Duchy of Brunswick is partly Protestant and partly Roman-Catholic. Education is greatly promoted by the government; there are superior and elementary schools throughout the whole duchy. The constitution of Brunswick is a limited monarchy: the succession is hereditary, and the sovereignty passes to the female upon the failure of the male line. The legislature is composed of the duke, and an upper and lower chamber; and during the prorogation of the chambers, a permanent committee act as a legislative organ.

The territory of the Grand Duchy of Mecklenburg is situated in the north of Germany: it is bounded on the north by the Baltic; on the east, by Prussia; on the south, by Brandenburg and Lüneburg; and on the west, by Lauenburg and Lubeck. The surface of the country is almost one entire plain, the soil of which for the most part is very fertile. Its chief productions are wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, and vetches. Cattle and poultry are very abundant; and fish abound in its seas and numerous lakes.

Mecklenburg is divided into two portions,—Schwerin and Strelitz, and is under the government of two branches of one family, each of which bears the archducal title. The great majority of the population are Lutherans. The sovereigns are the heads of the church. Education was formerly much neglected, but it is now universal, both in Schwerin and Strelitz. In matters of government the grand dukes have the whole executive power; but they

share with the estates the legislative power, and the right of imposing taxes.

The Grand Duchy of Oldenburg is surrounded on three sides by the kingdom of Hanover; on the northern part it is bounded by the North Sea. It forms a part of the great plain of Germany, and has neither mountains, hills, nor forests. The soil in the interior is poor, but there is rich marsh land on the banks of the Weser and the mouth of the Jahde. Its natural productions are corn of all kinds, flax, hemp, hops, culinary vegetables, and timber. There are the usual domestic animals, poultry, game, bees, and fish.

Oldenburg, the capital of the grand duchy, is situated on the navigable river Hunte. There are some tanneries, distilleries, and soap manufactories in this town.

The established religion of Oldenburg is the Lutheran; but other sects are tolerated. With respect to education, Oldenburg is behind other German states, but progress has been made of late years in every branch of instruction. The constitution is monarchical, without an assembly of states; and the government is hereditary in the male line.

THE ITALIAN STATES.

SECTION XLIV.—PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

ITALY, one of the great natural divisions of Europe, is bounded on the north, north-east and north-west by the Alps; and on all other parts by the sea. It is naturally divided into two parts, North and South Italy. Northern Italy includes most of the Sardinian States, Lombardy, the Venetian territories, Bologna, Ferrara, and the Romagna. Southern Italy includes Tuscany, now belonging to Sardinia, the greater part of the Papal States, and what was till lately the kingdom of Naples. The climate of North and South Italy greatly varies. In the north, frosts and snows are common in winter; and delicate plants do not thrive, except in sheltered situations. In the south, however, the most tender plants thrive in the open air; and in the southern-

most part of the peninsula, even tropical plants come to maturity. The staple products of the country are corn, rice, wine, oil, silk, and fruits of every kind; and in summer time even the mountains afford summer pasture for the cattle. The vine grows all over Italy, but the best wine is made in the south. Italy is emphatically the land of painting, of melody, and of poetry. The scenery of the Bay of Naples, and the Straits of Messina, is unrivalled in the world.

Those portions of Italy which are under the dominion of the sovereigns of Austria, and Sardinia, have been noticed in previous pages: it only remains, therefore, to notice in this chapter the Papal State, the Grand Duchies, Massa and Lucca, and the small republic of San Marino.

The Papal State occupies a portion of the central part of Italy, stretching a little from the west, in an oblique direction, from the Mediterranean shore. Its greatest length from north to south was about 260 miles; its breadth being about 120 miles. It consisted of three great divisions—the northern, eastern, and southern; the latter of which was the largest in extent, and also the most important, as it contained the metropolis and included the classical land of Latium.

Rome, the capital of the Papal territory, has for more than 2,000 years been one of the most celebrated cities in the world. It was founded 753 years before the birth of Christ; and almost from that time to the present hour the eyes of mankind have been directed toward it. At one period, when its consuls, and afterwards its emperors, ruled the known world, it was four times as large as at present; but even now it is one of the finest cities in Europe. It contains 300 towers, as many churches, twenty-eight gates, six bridges over the Tiber, and numerous ancient monuments, as baths, obelisks, amphitheatres, aaquducts, fountains, catacombs, pagan temples, triumphal arches, and statues. The pope has here three palaces: the Vatican, a summer house on Mount Cavallo, and the palace of the Lateran. St. Peter's church, at Rome, is

the largest in all Christendom. Rome has frequently suffered from the invasion of enemies: the Gaul and the Goth have in turns victoriously trodden its streets, but still it survives in splendour and magnificence, though largely dilapidated.

ROME.

The Papal State was divided for administrative purposes into fourteen provinces. Each of these provinces had a representative of the sovereign, who was at the head of the administration, and who was always a church dignitary. These representatives, who were styled delegates, were each assisted by a council composed of four laymen, appointed by the pope. There was, also, a provincial council in every province, which assembled for a fortnight once a year, to settle all local and financial affairs.

The religion of the Papal State is Roman Catholic; no other is tolerated; with the exception of about 10,000 Jews, who are somewhat distributed in Rome and other towns, though they are chiefly confined to one quarter, called the Ghetto. The education of the poorer classes is neglected, but there are several colleges throughout the state; and females of the higher classes are chiefly educated in convents.

The population of the Papal State is chiefly agricultural; but its manufactures are not unimportant. At one time, the sale of relics and indulgences constituted the whole commerce of Rome, and the manufacture of beads and saints'

images formed the sole industry of the people. Since that time, however, manufacturing industry has greatly increased; the chief manufactures being woollen cloths, silk, paper, leather, cotton, wax candles, hats, catgut, and liquorice. Its exports are cattle, wool, cheese, lambskins, tallow, hemp, silk, vitriol, sulphur, potash, and cream of tartar.

The government of the Papal State is an elective monarchy: the pope for the time being is the absolute sovereign, both in church and state. By way of eminence, the pope is styled "his holiness;" and he affects to be above all temporal princes, for which reason he wears three crowns upon his tiara. He also pretends to be the vicar of Jesus Christ upon earth.

The former Grand Duchy of Tuscany was bounded on the west by the sea, and on the north by the duchies of Parma and Modena, and the old papal provinces of Bologna and Romagna; on the east, by the papal provinces of Urbino and Perugia; and on the south, by that of Viterbo and the sea. Its surface presents four different regions—mountains, hills, valleys, and plain. About one-sixth of the area of the district is planted with vine and olive-trees; another sixth is arable land; two-sixths are either forests or plantations of chestnut-trees; and nearly as much again is pasture land. The district is considered the most fertile and agreeable in all Italy. Its oil and wine are held in great estimation. The country is rich in mineral products, and cattle and game are abundant.

The Grand Duchy of Tuscany was divided for the purposes of administration into five provinces, each of which was subdivided into several districts, and was administered by a provveditore.

The chief towns of Tuscany are—Florence, the capital, Leghorn, Siena, Pisa, and Arezzo. Florence is situated on the river Arno; and it has been greatly celebrated for its manufactures and cultivation of literature and the arts. Dante, the father of Italian poetry; Americus Vespucius, who gave name to America; and Finguera,

the inventor of engraving,—were born at Florence. Pisa is noted as the birthplace of the celebrated astronomer Galileo; and Arezzo, as the birthplace of Guido, Mæcenas and Petrarch.

The manufactures of Tuscany are numerous; the principal are, woollen caps, hemp and linen cloth, thread, silk and silk stuffs, paper, glass, leather, wax, coral, iron ware, alabaster ornaments, and china and delft ware.

There are two universities; one at Pisa, the other at Siena. Charitable institutions are numerous, and mark a high state of civilization.

The Duchy of Lucca laid between Tuscany and Modena, on the Mediterranean Sea. The territory is divided into three regions—mountainous districts, the fine valley of the Serchio, and lowlands near the sea.

The country was divided for administrative purposes into eleven communes; at the head of each of which was a political officer, called Gonfalioniere, and a judge, called Commisario Giusdicente. This duchy deserves honourable notice for its high state of cultivation, the industry of its inhabitants, and their ardent attachment to liberty. The manufactures of the country consist of woollen cloths, paper, linen, glass, iron, copper, and hats.

The chief towns of this duchy are Lucca and Viareggio. Lucca is situated on the rich plain watered by the Serchio, and is surrounded by mountains. Like most other Italian cities, it is rich in churches; and it possesses likewise a few other fine public buildings. It is mentioned in ancient history as a town belonging to the Etruscans, after which it became a Roman colony. It is remarkable for being the place where the first "triumvirate" was formed, between Pompey, Cæsar, and Crassus.

The Duchy of Parma extended from the Apennines to the Po, and formed part of the great basin of that river. The state consisted of three territories, which were formerly separate states; namely, Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla. It was divided for administrative purposes into five provinces. The principal products of the country are, corn of every kind, pulse, fruit, wine, silk, wool, cattle, and poultry

The mountain region, which constitutes about one-third of the whole country, is rugged and unfertile: it is from these parts that the Italian boys who go about England and France with organs, monkeys, &c., migrate.

The chief towns of this district are—Parma, the capital, Placentia, and Guastalla. Parma is situated in a fine plain, south of the Po. It is rather more than four miles in circumference, and is surrounded with walls and moats. Its most remarkable buildings are its cathedral, churches, and the ducal palace.

The sovereignty of this duchy was assigned by the allies to the Empress Maria Louisa, on the downfall of Napoleon, in 1814. It now forms part of the kingdom of Italy.

The Duchy of Modena was bounded on the west by that of Parma; on the south-west, by the Garfagnana; on the south, by Tuscany; and on the east, by the Papal State. Its whole area was about 2,000 English miles; about one-half of which is covered by the chain of the Apennines and its offsets. The rest of the country is a fertile plain, producing an abundance of corn, Indian corn, pulse, hemp, wine, oil, silk, and fruits. Horned cattle and swine are exported from this country in considerable numbers.

Modena was divided for administrative purposes into four provinces, each of which was subdivided into communes. Its chief towns are—Modena, the capital, Reggio, Mirandolo, Massa, and Carrara. Modena is situated in the centre of a wide plain, which forms part of the great basin of the Po. Its most remarkable buildings are the ducal palace, its cathedral, and its churches. The city is noted as the birthplace of Tasso the poet, Correggio the painter, Sigonio the historian, and Vignola the architect. Reggio is noted as the birthplace of the poet Ariosto.

The manufactures of the district consist of woollens, silks, gauzes, paper, straw hats, glass, and pottery. Its exports, besides horned cattle and swine, are fruit, silk, corn, brandy, wine, and vinegar.

The religion of Modena was the Roman Catholic. There are several schools throughout the district, but the instruc-

tion given is by no means commensurate to the wants of the people.

The Duchy of Massa, a small territory on the west coast of Italy, was for a long time a sovereign principality, under the family of Cibo. Its chief town, Massa, is surrounded by fine gardens and plantations of fruit-trees. It is a bishop's see.

The territories of the Republic of St. Marino consist of a high craggy mountain, situated to the south-west of Rimini. The whole extent of territory is only about 40 square miles; and its population about 7,000. Yet the inhabitants of this territory can boast of having preserved their liberties as a republic, with little intermission, for 1,300 years. Its capital is St. Marino.

For the sake of juvenile readers and students of history, it has been thought desirable to retain the names and boundaries of most of the states in the north and centre of Italy, though they are now united in one kingdom under the sceptre of Victor Emmanuel.

GREECE.

SECTION XLV.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE kingdom of Greece consists of three great divisions—namely, Northern Greece, the Morea, and the Islands. More than half the surface of the country consists of mountains. Its principal mountains are those of Pentadactylon, Liakoura, Œta, and the Pindus mountains. From its physical conformation, the rivers of Greece are necessarily small; most of them are mere brooks, which are dried up in summer. But mountainous as the country of Greece is, there are numerous fine plains and fertile valleys. Anciently, it was celebrated for its fertility, but in more modern times, the cultivation of its soil has been greatly neglected. It wants, however, only a free and industrious population, and it would again become a land of plenty. This may be seen from the following productions which it yields, in many instances naturally. Among its fruit-trees are the vine, the olive, the mulberry, the lemon, the orange, the peach, the pomegranate, the apricot, the

almond, the apple, and the fig. Forest trees abound in Greece. On the mountains and in the plains grow "Jove's own tree," the oak, the pine, fir, sallow, elm, alder, yew, cypress, plane, and willow. The common crops are wheat, barley, rye, maize, oats, rice, millet, beans, peas, tares, sesamum, anise, cotton, and tobacco. The chief culinary vegetables are asparagus, cucumbers, love-apples, spinach, and turnips. The country abounds in rare and medicinal plants. Anciently its mineral wealth was extensive, and marble of the most durable and valuable kind is still found in great abundance.

The islands of Greece may be divided into three classes; namely, those which lie immediately off the coasts; those which lie in clusters on the Ægean Sea; and those which lie separate in the open sea. The principal islands are Corcyra, Ithaca, Cythera, Scyros, Samothrace, Imbros, Lemnos, Andros, Paros, Naxos, Delos, Melos, Ciphnos, Ios, the Strophades, Crete, Cyprus, Samos, Cos, and Rhodes. Most of these islands possess a soil celebrated for its fertility.

SECTION XLVI.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

In ancient times Greece abounded in celebrated cities. There were, in fact, in ancient Greece, as many cities as there were states. Most of these have either disappeared or have sunk into insignificance; but there is still one city remaining, which in the days of antiquity was second only to Rome—that city is Athens:

> "The eye of Greece, mother of arts
> And eloquence."

Athens is situated about five miles from the sea-coast, occupying the central plain of Attica and some heights distinct from the mountains on the north frontier of the province which run down into the plain. At the time when this city had attained its greatest magnitude, namely, about B.C. 440, its circumference was between nineteen and twenty miles. Athens, however, is no longer a city of

ATHENS—ACROPOLIS.

such great extent. Waddington says that about one-third of its buildings have been demolished. Its population is about 35,000. Still the remains of antiquity are looked upon by the traveller with an eye of wonder and admiration. Among the ancient buildings of which traces still remain, are the Parthenon, which was rebuilt by Pericles, after it had been destroyed by the Persians; The Pynx, in which public meetings were held; the temple of Theseus; the portico and arch of Hadrian; the temple of Jupiter Olympius; the Panathenaic Stadium; the monument of Lysicrates; the Prophylæa; and the beautiful Ionic temple, called the Erectheium. The temple of Minerva Parthenos is reckoned one of the most magnificent in the world. Although much of its remains has been brought to England, it is still without a rival. Antiquaries have destroyed what Goth, and Turk, and time, have spared; but they may carry on the work of havoc and spoliation for several ages to come before all traces of this noble building will be swept away. It may be mentioned, that since the independence of Greece, buildings have been erected in great numbers in the northern part of the city; and the town, which has produced a long list of illustrious orators, poets, statesmen, and warriors, may in a few years be more flourishing than it has been for ages.

The resources of the continental part of the kingdom of Greece are chiefly derived from agriculture. The commercial resources and the navigation of Greece are centered in the ports of Nauplia, Missolonghi, Patras, Galaxidi, and the islands of Hydra, Spezia, and Syra. The principal traffic of Greece is the carrying trade between the ports of the Mediterranean and the Black Sea.

The religion of the Greeks is that of the Greek Church. Its government, at the present time, is a constitutional hereditary monarchy, with two legislative houses, a senate and a representative. The kingdom of Greece is a state of contemporary erection; its present and first king, Otho of Bavaria, was raised to the throne by the Allied Powers, in 1835, the Greeks having, a few years before, shaken off the Turkish yoke.

Book the Fourth.

CHAPTER I.

ASIA.

SECTION I.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

ASIA, one of the five grand divisions of the globe, lies to the east of Europe and Africa. It is separated from Africa by seas, except where the two countries are joined by the narrow isthmus of Suez. With Europe it is connected by extensive tracts of land under the meridian of Ural. In length it extends, from east to west, about 6,700 miles, and in breadth, 5,400. In importance it is now second to Europe; but in sacred history, it is the more celebrated. Asia was the scene of the creation and redemption of man; and here it was that the revelations of Heaven were delivered by the mouths of God's holy prophets. In a word, Asia was almost the only scene of Bible events, and where the wonders it records were enacted.

The surface of Asia consists of six lowlands, different in their nature, and independent of one another. These lowlands spread below and around two high table-lands, occupying an immense space; and they are themselves surrounded by seven or eight less extensive and entirely separated mountain or table-land regions. Added to these are ten or twelve intermediate formations, constituting the terrace regions; thus making about thirty great natural divisions, each of which is subject to its peculiar natural laws, presents a peculiar natural appearance, and maintains a distinct character. The whole surface of Asia

contains about seventeen and a half millions of square miles.

The northern regions of Asia are cold and barren; but the middle and southern are blessed with a climate of great salubrity. So incredibly intense is the cold of the Siberian region, which comprehends all the northern parts of Asia, that birds and animals, as well as man, perish beneath its fierceness; their very blood being frozen in their veins. Here, also, vegetation is of the most stunted description: whole districts are covered with nothing but morasses and coarse rushes, mixed with diminutive birches and arbutus, small willows, and a few arctic brambles. As we approach the middle and the southern parts, however, the face of nature changes. Here the soil is rich and fertile, producing fruit, drugs, spices, wines, and all the necessaries of life. The botany of Asia comprehends the rarest plants in nature; and its agriculture embraces every species of grain. On its mountains, also, are seen forests of timber trees of every description; and its fields are clad with verdure; while its gardens produce vegetables in rich abundance. Were its inhabitants an industrious people, as they were in ancient times, there is no division of the globe on which we live which could be compared to it for fertility.

The common domestic animals of Asia present a greater

TIGER.

variety, and attain to greater individual perfection, than in any other part of the world. Besides some of those known in Europe, the camel, dromedary, elephant, rhinoceros, apes, and monkeys, may be mentioned. Its animals of prey are very numerous; among them are the bear, the tiger, the leopard, the lion, the panther, and the hyæna.

Concerning the birds of Asia, the principal circumstance worthy of notice is the abundance and varied and brilliant colours of the gallinaceous tribes. The most valuable of our domestic fowls and quadrupeds originally came from this continent, and are still found wild in the woods of India; as are the peacock, pheasant, and many kindred species. In other respects, the ornithology of Asia is by no means peculiar. All the common European species are found throughout the continent of Asia, and cannot be distinguished even by a feather. Thus the common house-sparrow is as abundant about the villages of Upper Nepaul, as in England. The reptiles, fishes, and insects of Asia, likewise, greatly resemble those of other continents. Its mammals only are peculiar in its zoology.

Asia is rich in metals and minerals. Precious stones of every description are found in many parts; and its mountains and rivers produce gold and silver. Extensive layers of shells are found on the high table-lands of Tibet; and the strata of the tertiary formation of Siberia are full of the mineral remains of an older world.

As Asia is the most extensive of the great divisions of the globe, so likewise is it far superior to the rest in point of population. Its surface contains upwards of 500,000,000 of human beings; that is, twice as many as the inhabitants of Europe, and more than eight times that of the inhabitants of America. Its population consists of various races, among which may be mentioned the Malay, Finnic, Mongolic, and Caucasian.

The principal countries of Asia requiring notice are these—Asiatic Turkey, Arabia, Asiatic Russia, Tartary, Persia, Beloochistan, Afghanistan, Hindoostan, China, India beyond the Ganges, Siam, Malacca, Cochin-China, Japan, and the Asiatic Islands.

CHAPTER II.—ASIATIC TURKEY.

SECTION I.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Asiatic Turkey consists of Asia Minor, or Anatolia, and the ancient Syria, including Palestine and Armenia; or that whole region which is bounded by the Archipelago and the eastern shore of the Mediterranean on the west, the crests of the Kurdistan mountains (which separate it from Persia) on the east, the Black Sea and the Russian empire on the north, and the Mediterranean and the desert of Arabia on the south.

Anatolia, or Asia Minor, is bounded on the north by the Black Sea, on the west by the Archipelago, and on the south by the Mediterranean. Its eastern frontier extends to the Euphrates and Armenia. The grand characteristics of its geography are the vast ranges of mountains which traverse it; namely, the Anti-Taurus of the ancients, and the Paryadres, the modern name of which is Keldir. The centre of Asia Minor is one immense plateau supported by these mountains, part of which is drained by the rivers that flow into the Black Sea, and part of which is covered by salt-marshes, lakes, and rivers, having no visible outlet. The rivers of Asia Minor have more celebrity than importance. The Halys is the largest; which river once formed the boundary between the Lydian and Mediau empires.

The climate of Asia Minor greatly varies. Its western shores, occupied by the Greek colonies, known by the ancient names of Æolis and Ionia, have been always celebrated for their genial climate and the fertility of their valleys; but the high plains of the interior are excessively cold in the season of winter. The finest parts of the country are the coast, the Euxine, and the valleys of the northern side of the peninsula. On the south, the immense mass of Taurus, capped with eternal snow, leaves between the Mediterranean and its basis a comparatively narrow slip, and gives to the climate of the southern coast a character very different from that of the north side of the

peninsula. The amount of summer rain is much less, and the summer heat is often excessive. The northern shore being very humid, parts of the mountain slope, from the edge of the high plains, are covered with forest trees of great variety. This tract is known to the Turks by the significant name of the "sea of trees." Its magnificent forests and its great mineral wealth give a distinctive character to the country of Anatolia.

Syria is bounded on the north by that portion of Mount Taurus anciently called Amanus, and on the west by the Mediterranean Sea. On the south and east its boundaries are ill defined, as it lies contiguous to deserts inhabited by nomadic tribes, who sometimes own, and at other times dispute, the authority of the Turkish sultan.

Syria has been divided by geographers into three great portions, southern, central, and northern Syria. Southern Syria extends from south to north, in a straight line, above 110 miles; central Syria comprehends the most elevated portion of the country, having within its limits the two mountain ranges of Libanus and Anti-Libanus; and northern Syria comprehends that portion of the country which lies north of 34° 40′ north latitude.

Though situated within the temperate zone, Syria exhibits all the climates of the globe. Its chief productions in grain are wheat, rye, barley, and dhurra. Cotton is partially cultivated: and among its other productions are hemp, madder, sesamum, tobacco, and the castor-oil plant. The cultivation of fruit-trees receives much attention. The chief fruits are the fig, the vine, the olive, and the mulberry-tree. Other fruits are almonds, apricots, peaches, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, apples, and pears. The most remarkable trees in Syria are the sycamore, the Indian fig, the mulberry, and the carob and pistachio trees, all of

which grow wild, but are generally cultivated. The mountain forests produce cedars, firs, and pines; the table-land forests several kinds of oak, the azerol, the walnut, the strawberry-tree, the laurel, terebinth, Juniperus sabina, and Juniperus phœnicia. The forests of Mount Libanus produce scammony and sumach, which are gathered for articles of export.

The domestic animals of Syria are horses, cattle, asses, sheep, goats, and camels, of which latter animal there are two breeds, the Turkmans and the Arabian. The only beasts of prey which may be said to be numerous are jackals, foxes, and hyænas; but wolves, deer, wild boars, and several kinds of antelopes are found in various parts of the country. Hares, porcupines, and the jerboa are by no means uncommon. Among the birds of Syria may be enumerated the eagle, partridge, and pigeon; and in the mountains east of the southern valley are great numbers of birds called katta, supposed to be the Tetrao alkatta. Bees are abundant on Mount Libanus; and the rearing of silkworms is carried on extensively in the mountainous tracts near the coast. The fields of Syria are frequently laid waste by the locusts, which are eaten both fresh and salted by the Arabs.

SYRIAN GOAT.

The only metal of Syria is iron: its minerals are coal, rocksalt, quicksilver, sulphur, and bitumen or asphaltum: the latter of which constitutes an article of export. It is chiefly found on the shores of the Dead Sea.

Ancient Assyria, which now forms part of the Turkish empire, not only comprehended Assyria Proper, but Irak Arabi, the ancient Babylonia. The physical features of this country, including Taurus, are distinguished by its mountains, rivers, plains, and vegetation. Its mountains are numerous, and its rivers, especially the Tigris and

the Euphrates, are celebrated both in sacred and profane history. The features of the vegetation of Assyria are two-fold—that of the mountains and that of the plains. The mountains of Assyria not only produce forest trees of every variety and of great magnitude, but several kinds of wheat, and a great variety of fruit trees. The plains are distinguished for their fertility. Many species of grain, of fruit trees, and a great variety of vegetables, are grown here in abundance. The climate of Assyria Proper is various. Taurus has cold winters and very hot summers, while the climate of the plains is characterised by great dryness, combined with great variations in the temperature of the air. Irak Arabi, or Babylonia, generally speaking, enjoys a salubrious and wholesome air, though at certain seasons no air can be more dangerous. The country, indeed, is exposed to a pestilential wind called the Samiel, which often continues for two months, and which is very destructive to human life.

SECTION II.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

For the purposes of administration, the Turkish dominions in Asia are divided into various eyalets, or provinces; and these eyalets are subdivided into various sanjaks, or districts. These provinces and districts are governed by what are termed "dignities of the sword." The governors of the eyalets are pashas with two tails; and those of the sanjaks, pashas of one tail. These governors combine the functions of military commanders, of judges, and receivers of taxes; but there is great confusion in this system of administration. The pasha of each department, like the sultan, is a mere despot, possessing the absolute power of life and death.

The most remarkable cities, towns, and places in Asiatic Turkey are Aleppo, Damascus, Smyrna, Prusa, Bassora, Bagdad, Jerusalem, Ephesus, Tyre and Sidon, Troy, Amasia, Acre, Mousul, Hilla, Erzeroum, and Kars.

Aleppo is the capital of Syria, and is celebrated for its

manufactures of silk and cotton. Damascus, likewise in Syria, is also noted for its manufactures of silk and cotton, as well as soap and swords. Here the celebrated Saladin died in 1192. It is the oldest city in the world. Smyrna, in Asia Minor, is a noted port on the Levant. Homer is supposed to have been born in this city; and it is celebrated in scripture history as one of the seven churches of Asia. Prusa, the ancient Bursa, is also situated in Asia Minor. Here died Othman, the founder of the Turkish empire, in 1326, and Amurath the Great, in 1450. Bassora is a noted commercial city, between the junction of the Euphrates and the Tigris. Bagdad was formerly the capital of the great empire of the caliphs, and now of a pashalic of its own name. The city is divided into two parts by the Tigris, the communication between which is by means of a bridge of thirty pontoons. It was at one time the Athens of Mohammedan Asia, but the ancient glory of Bagdad has long departed. Jerusalem, the celebrated capital of the Jewish nation, is chiefly celebrated for its past history, as recorded by sacred and

JERUSALEM.

profane writers. It is now a mean town, in a sterile district, subsisting only by that veneration in which it is held in common by Jews, Christians, and Mohammedans. Ephesus, anciently one of the most splendid cities of

Asia Minor, was another of the Seven Churches whose doom is recorded in the Revelation. It is now a poor and miserable Turkish town, with few inhabitants. Tyre and Sidon were the two principal cities of Phœnicia, and were formerly distinguished for grandeur and opulence; but, as foretold in Scripture, they are now almost entirely decayed. Troy, once a famous city in Asia Minor, is now utterly destroyed. It was taken by the Greeks, B.C. 1184, after ten years' siege, which has been immortalized both by Homer and Virgil. Amasia, a town of Asia Minor, is noted as the birth-place of Strabo, the celebrated Greek geographer. Acre, the ancient Ptolemais, was taken by the famous Saladin in 1187, and by the Crusaders in 1191. In more modern times, it is celebrated for successfully withstanding the fierce attacks of the French armies under Napoleon: bombarded by Napier in 1840. Mousul, on the Tigris, is noted for its manufactures of morocco and cotton. Hilla, on the Euphrates, is supposed to be built on the site of the ancient Babylon. Erzeroum is a noted resting-place for caravans to the East Indies, and is one of the most important governments in the Turkish empire. Kars is noted for its defence by General Williams in the Russian War. Many other places in Asiatic Turkey are interesting for events recorded in history, and magnificent remains of antiquity: among these may be mentioned Palmyra, or Tadmor, in the wilderness, and Balbec, the ancient Heliopolis.

For particulars concerning the government, &c., of the Turkish empire, see Turkey in Europe.

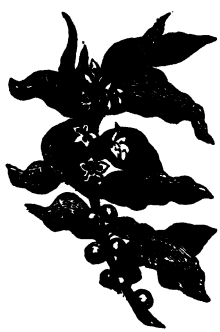
ARABIA.

SECTION III.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

ARABIA is an extensive country lying between the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf. Its entire surface is calculated to be about four times that of France. It is divided into Arabia Petræa, or the Stony, on the East; Felix, or the

Happy, on the West; and Deserta, or the Desert, on the North.

Arabia Petræa, or the Stony, is so called from the number of granite rocks which lie scattered over it. It borders on the north of the Red Sea, and lies between Egypt and Palestine. Among its mountains are those of Sinai and Horeb, so greatly celebrated in Scripture history. At the foot of Horeb is a beautiful plain; here it was that the Israelites encamped on their journey from Egypt to Palestine.



Arabia Felix, or the Happy, comprises the south-west part of Arabia, and is noted for the fertility of its soil. It abounds in fragrant spices and rich perfumes, and is celebrated for its fine fruits, coffee, and dates. Its frankincense, myrrh, cassia, and cinnamon, are mentioned by sacred writers, and among the Romans also Arabian odours were proverbial.

Arabia Deserta comprises the whole of the north-eastern part, and is so called from its interior being a vast desert of barren sand. It extends from the deserts of Palmyra to Irak Arabi, having on its west a part of Syria, on its north Algezira, and on its south Arabia Felix.

A considerable portion of Arabia lies within the torrid zone, and the climate in many places is sultry and very unhealthy. The heat of the climate is increased by the nature of the soil, which chiefly consists of barren rocky mountains and vast deserts, over which there is no path that can be traced. Travellers over these deserts generally travel in the night, and are guided by the stars, or by a compass. The sands of the deserts are frequently agitated by sudden winds, and they move along in dense clouds, burying whole caravans, or companies of merchants, travellers, and pilgrims, under them.

Arabia is noted for its horses. The Arabs possess the

noblest breed in the world. The best horses are bred in the desert bordering on Syria, and they are educated in the encampments of the Bedouins with careful tenderness. It is for their attachment to their masters, and their amazing speed, that they are chiefly valued. Among the other domestic animals of Arabia are the camel, the ass, the ox, and sheep. Its wild animals are the rock goat, the fox, the musk-deer, the jackal, the wolf, the hyæna, the panther, and a wild species of ass. Among the birds of Arabia may be mentioned the eagle, the vulture, the hawk, and the ostrich.

ARAB TRAVELLING.

Tame fowls, pheasants, and pigeons, abound in Arabia Felix, and pelicans, and various kinds of sea-fowl are found on the coasts of the Red Sea.

Among the ancients, Arabia was noted for its precious metals, but neither gold nor silver mines are now found there. The only mines known are those of lead and iron.

SECTION IV.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

The only cities of Arabia are on the borders of the country; the most noted of these are Mecca, Medina, and Mocha.

Mecca and Medina are the centre of the devotion of all the Mohammedans. The mosque of Mecca is the most

magnificent in all the world, and every Mussulman is required by his religion to visit it personally, or by proxy, at least once during his life. From this circumstance the city is made an annual rendezvous for devotion and commerce. Medina is chiefly noted for its temple and Mohammed's tomb. It was from this place that Mohammed fled to evade a conspiracy formed against him in the year 622. Mocha is situated at the entrance of the Red Sea. It is a large, rich, and populous sea-port. Its chief commerce is with the English merchants, and is noted for its trade in coffee, aloes, frankincense, and myrrh.

ARAB TENTS.

The great mass of the country of Arabia is possessed by wandering tribes. Those living on the border towns have, through their commerce with foreign nations, lost much of their distinctive character; but the true Arabs live in detached tribes under tents, and still adhere to the primitive form of government, habits, and usages of their ancestors. Their nobles are called Sheikhs, and each Sheikh rules over his own family and servants. If they are unable separately to defend their property against a hostile neighbour, several petty Sheikhs unite and choose a chief among themselves. The Bedouin Arabs are all soldiers, while, at the same time, they attend to their cattle. Agriculture, and other menial employments, are committed to their subjects, the common Arabs. Among themselves, and towards strangers who take refuge under their tents, the Arabs are honest, civil, and humane; but their general character is that of freebooters or robbers, which the term Arab implies.

ASIATIC RUSSIA.

SECTION V.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

ASIATIC RUSSIA, or Siberia, is a vast tract of country extending from European Russia to the Pacific Ocean. Its greatest length, from east to west, exceeds 3,600 miles, and its greatest width, from north to south, is about 1,900 miles. Its surface is estimated at about 4,000,000 square miles.

The principal mountains of Siberia are the Uralian, Altai, Yablonoi, and Stannoi. The face of the country, however, for the most part, like European Russia, tends to a level. Its chief rivers are the Obi, Yennissey, Lena, and Irtish; its chief lake that of Baikal. The greatest part of Siberia has never been traversed, and it is, therefore, but little known. The borders of the Northern Ocean consist chiefly of marshy plains covered with perpetual snow, and a great portion of the interior consists of extensive deserts called steppes. Its southern parts are rich and fertile; and all the other parts of Asiatic Russia, in which the soil and climate admit of the growth of trees, abound in extensive forests.

The domestic animals of Siberia vary greatly in size and form in different districts; this is especially the case with horses and sheep. The Siberian forests abound in wild animals, which contribute largely to the comfort and trade of the inhabitants. Among these wild animals may be enumerated the rein-deer, bison, ibex, wild horse, bear, wolf, fox, and sable. The fur of animals which roam at large in its forests renders the country valuable to Russia. So also do the mines of Siberia; for the country is rich in metals—namely, gold, silver, iron, and copper. The tusks of fossil elephants likewise constitute an article of commerce, and many persons make it the business of their life to search for these strange hidden treasures. Precious stones of various kinds occur in Siberia, and diamonds have been found along the eastern declivity of the Uralian range.

SECTION VI.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

SIBERIA is divided, for the purposes of administration, into two general governments—those of Western and Eastern Siberia; and these are again subdivided into several provinces, which are each governed by a separate officer, who receives his orders from the governor-general. The capital of Western Siberia is Tobolsk; that of Eastern Siberia, Irkutsk. Tobolsk is situated on the river Tobol, and is chiefly noted for its trade with China; all caravans travelling from China to Moscow pass through this city. Irkutsk is situated on the river Angara, and is likewise noted for its trade.

The chief manufactures of Siberia are leather, iron, cutlery, glass, woollen stuffs, and linen. Siberia has no maritime commerce; its chief trade is carried on with Russia, Bokhara, and China; all of which is conducted by land and river carriage. With these countries its commerce, both as regards exports and imports, is extensive.

In no part of the world are there to be found so many different races as there are in the Russian empire. The principal nations of Asiatic Russia are the Tartars, Ostiaks, Koriakes, and Samoides. All these nations are under the rule of the Russian emperor, whose government has been described under the article "European Russia."

TARTARY.

SECTION VII.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ETC.

TARTARY is a country of vast extent in the middle of Asia. Its surface is in general mountainous, and its soil various, but not very fruitful, except in Great Bucharia. Part of this vast territory is under the dominion of the emperor of Russia, and part under the rule of the Chinese emperor; that part of it which remains to be described in this section is called Independent Tartary.

Independent Tartary includes all the country between the Caspian Sea, and the Tee-an-shan mountains. It contains

Turkistan, Great Bókhara, the country of the Khirgis, Turcomania, and Kharisim, with other districts of minor importance. It is bounded on the north by the country of the Kalmucks and Russia, on the east by Chinese Tartary, on the south by Persia and Cabul, and on the west by the Caspian Sea.

Turkistan is a small conntry, between Lake Aral on the west, and the Kalmucks on the east. The prominent race of this country, as its name implies, is the Turk, whose religion is that of the Koran. The chief towns of Turkistan are Taraz, Otrar, Turkistan, and Tashkent. The Turkish clans, however, are not confined to the limits mentioned above: they possess power all over Independent Tartary, and are, in fact, the dominant race, whence the whole of this country is, by some geographers, called Turkistan.

The country of the Khirgis comprises the northern part of Independent Tartary, and part of Russian Tartary, being an extensive tract to the north of the Caspian and Aral lakes. The Khirgis are divided into three hordes, namely, the Great, Middle, and Little hordes. They reside in tents, which they carry with them in their migrations from the banks of the Syr to the steppes of Issim. Each horde is governed by a khan or chief of its own. Their religion is generally Mohammedanism, but some of the hill Khirgis adhere to Shamanism. Their chief wealth consists of flocks and herds. They possess no towns, but they frequent those on the borders of their country for the purposes of traffic.

Turcomania lies between the Caspian Sea and Lake Aral. It is for the most part a sandy and rocky country, and its inhabitants, like the Khirgis, for the most part live in tents. Their wealth also consists of flocks and herds, especially of camels, cattle, and sheep.

The geography of Bókhara is too little explored to be defined with accuracy. On the south, however, it is divided from Hindustan, Caubul, and Persia, by the Hindoo Koosh mountains, which are perpetually covered with snow. Its population consists chiefly of Uzbecs and Bokharians. The former dwell in tents during the summer, and in towns

and villages during the winter; the latter inhabit towns and cultivate the land. The religion of both is that of the Koran, and their government is despotic.

Kharisim is bounded on the north by Turcomania, on the east by Bokhara, on the south by Korassan, and on the west by the Caspian Sea. Its chief town is Khieva, the dominant inhabitants of which are Uzbecs. The present ruler greatly encourages agriculture. The population of Khieva is about 10,000.

The principal rivers of Independent Tartary are the Amoo and the Syr. Its climate in general is healthy; but, although lying in the parallel of Spain, Greece, and Turkey in Asia, both summer and winter are much colder.

The chief cities of Independent Tartary are Samarcand, Balk, and Bokhara.

Samarcand was the celebrated capital of Tamerlane. It was the ancient Maracanda, where Alexander the Great killed his friend Clitus in a fit of drunkenness. It was long distinguished throughout the East as a seat of learning, and it possessed the most noted of all the Mohammedan universities. In the year 1220 this city was taken by Genghis Khan.

Bokhara, often the rival of Samarcand, is a city of considerable extent. It is the seat of the government of the province of the same name, which government is the oldest recognised sovereignty of Independent Tartary; it is also the only one which owes its authority to an hereditary sentiment of respect, independent of the personal character of the ruler. In other districts of Independent Tartary it is the khan alone who governs; in Bokhara it is the law: notwithstanding, this law is of a most despotic nature.

PERSIA.

SECTION VIII.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE modern kingdom of Persia extends between 25° and 40° north latitude, and from 44° to 62° 30′ east longitude,

and borders on the kingdoms of Afghanistan and Beloochistan. The surface of this country is about 500,000 square miles, or more than twice the area of France.

The principal mountains of Persia are the Hindoo Koosh, the Elbourz, the Massula, the Farsistan, the Kerman, and the Kurdistan mountains. Its principal rivers are the Sefid-rud, or White River, the Urimiyeh, the Aji, the Kerkhah, the Karoon, and the Diayâlâh. Its most considerable lakes are the Shahee and the Lake of Niriz. The country possesses extensive plains, among which are the plains of Teheran, Ghilan, and Mazanderan. There are also numerous valleys between the mountain ranges, and various table-lands of great extent. There is likewise an extensive salt desert called Kuweer by the Persians, which consists of dreary rocks, oases, and sandy flats.

Concerning the climate of Persia, the description which the younger Cyrus gave of it to the historian Xenophon holds good to this day. "My father's empire," said he, "is so large, that people perish with cold at the one extremity, while they are suffocated with heat at the other." In some parts of Persia, however, the climate is delightful, especially in the season of spring, or from March to May.

Extensive tracts of the country of Persia serve only as pasture ground. Agriculture, however, is well understood by the Persians, and many parts of the country produce an abundance of corn. The most usual crops are rice, wheat, barley, and millet; but other crops are grown, as maize, sesamum, peas, beans, cotton, indigo, sugar, and madder. Fruit-trees are managed with great care and skill in Persia, and they consist of many species known to Europeans, as well as date-trees and pomegranates. Forest-trees do not occur, except on the northern declivity of the Elbourz mountains. Almost every species of culinary vegetables grow in Persia, and melons are distinguished for their size and flavour.

The domestic animals of Persia are horses, camels,

asses, mules, black cattle, buffaloes, sheep, and goats. A great variety of wild animals are found throughout the country; among which may be mentioned the lion, leopard,

ASIATIC LION.

tiger-cat, hyæna, wolf, jackal, fox, antelope, and wild boar. Birds are numerous only in a few places. The most conspicuous are the pheasant, bustard, partridge, heron, wild duck, pelican, and desert partridge. The blackbird, thrush, and nightingale, are the constant inhabitants of the thickets of roses which embellish every garden. Fish abound in the Persian Gulf and the Caspian Sea.

The chief minerals and metals of Persia are iron, lead, antimony, rock-salt, and several kinds of bitumen.

SECTION IX.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE population of Persia consists of a great number of nations who speak different languages. Many of these nations lead a nomadic life, and are comprehended under the general term of Iliyats. Some of these tribes, however, have become inhabitants of towns and villages, and hence they are divided into dwellers in cities and dwellers in the field. The most conspicuous among these tribes are the Lurs and the Kurds, each of which is governed by several chiefs. Every tribe pays a tax to government, and is obliged to supply a certain number of foot and horse soldiers to protect the throne of Persia.

Persia is divided, for the purposes of administration, into twelve provinces, the limits of which are frequently changed.

The principal cities of Persia are Ispahan, Teheran, Tabris, and Shiraz.

Ispahan is the finest commercial city in the empire. Anciently it was considered the first city in the East, but it is now greatly reduced. It has been twice captured and depopulated: its spoilers were Kouli Khan and Tamerlane, both of whom put many thousands of its inhabitants to the sword. Teheran is the present capital of Persia, and residence of the emperor; it only contains about 60,000 inhabitants in summer, and about double that number in the winter. Tabris was once a large and populous city, but it has suffered greatly from the contentions between the Turks, Persians, and Tartars, and still more from the fatal earthquakes which occurred in the years 1727 and 1787, which laid its streets in ruins. Shiraz, which is situated in the province of Fars, has a pleasing rather than a grand appearance. The celebrated poet Hafez was born and buried here; and here also is the tomb of its great philosopher and poet, Sadi.

Persian manufactures are numerous, but they are not of great importance. The most distinguished are several kinds of silk stuffs, sword-blades, leather, carpets, felt of camel hair, otto of roses, and jewellery. The commerce of Persia is chiefly internal, and is entirely carried on by caravans. Its exports are inconsiderable.

The government of Persia is an absolute monarchy; the word of its monarch is law, and the life and property of his subjects are in his hands. He delegates his power to the governors of provinces, reserving to himself the power of life and death. The tribes of the Iliyats are not subject to these governors, but are under their own hereditary chiefs, who obey or disobey the orders of the king as they find it convenient. The religion of the Persians is the Mohammedan, and in its chief court of law matters are decided according to the Koran.

BELOOCHISTAN.

SECTION X.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ETC.

BELOOCHISTAN is bounded on the west by the kingdom of Persia, on the south by the Arabian Sea, on the east by the frontier of Hindoostan, and on the north by Afghanistan. Anciently it formed part of the Persian empire, and was known under the name of Gedrosia. The country is elevated and mountainous, but intersected by plains, which, from their general sterility, have the character of desert. Some parts of Beloochistan, however, are under cultivation, and in these parts all kinds of grain known in India are grown. About Kelat, its capital, a great variety of vegetables are cultivated; and this district also abounds in all fruits known in Europe. Water-melons grow here to such a size that one man is unable to raise them. The mountains are covered with forest-trees, and large trees are also found in the jungle which generally covers the wide bed of the rivers.

The domestic animals of Beloochistan consist of horses, mules, asses, camels, dromedaries, buffaloes, sheep, goats, dogs, and cats. Of wild animals there are lions, tigers, leopards, hyænas, wolves, jackals, tiger-cats, wild dogs, foxes, hares, mountain goats, and different species of the deer tribe. The only domestic birds are fowls and pigeons, but almost every kind of wild bird known in Europe and India is met with. In some of the larger rivers fish are abundant.

The chief metals and minerals of Beloochistan are gold, silver, iron, lead, copper, tin, antimony, sulphur, alum, and several kinds of salt and saltpetre.

The inhabitants of Beloochistan are a mingled race, and are distinguished into four classes—the Belooches, Hindoos, Afghans, and Dewar. The country is governed by sirdars, or chiefs, all of whom, however, owe allegiance to the Khan of Kelat. The government of Kelat is despotic, but limited by a feudal system. The chiefs of the tribes are bound to furnish their quota of soldiers, and to attend the Khan's

court. They are partly hereditary, and partly elective. In the western districts the authority of the Khan is more nominal than real; the tribes here may be termed so many petty republics, in which every member feels that he has a right of revenging his wrongs, and of giving his vote on all matters of public interest.

AFGHANISTAN.

SECTION XI.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

AFGHANISTAN is a country of Asia, extending from the Indus on the east to Persia on the west, and from the great chain of Hindoo Koosh on the north, towards the Indian Ocean on the south. The surface of the country chiefly consists of lofty table-land, and the Himalaya and Paropamissan ranges of mountains. The western part of the Himalaya mountains is called the Hindoo Koosh, the higher ridges of which are bare rock, and are in many parts covered with perpetual snow. The chief rivers of Afghanistan are the Indus and the Helmund, the former of which is usually considered as its natural boundary on the side of Hindoostan.

The climate of Afghanistan is very variable. A region hot as India may be found even within a day's journey of a perpetually frozen country. The east is generally hotter than the west. At Peshawar the thermometer rises in July to the height of 120°, yet in the same place frosts last to the beginning of March. But, notwithstanding the difference of temperature, the climate of Afghanistan is generally healthy. The most unhealthy wind is that of the Simoom, which lasts but a few minutes, but which is most deadly in its effects.

The products of agriculture in Afghanistan are wheat, madder, assafœtida, barley, rice, Indian corn, millet, pulse, tobacco, &c., and almost every species of vegetables. The trees are generally the same as in Europe. Our finest fruits grow wild in the plains and valleys.

The animals of Afghanistan are similar to those of India. The principal stock of the rural population consists of

sheep—a fine handsome animal, with tails of solid fat a foot broad. Eagles and falcons frequent the mountains. The game consists of wild ducks, swans, quails, partridges, and other birds.

The mineral resources of Afghanistan are not considerable. Gold and silver are found in small quantities; and there are mines of lead, iron, and rock-salt in the north-west.

SECTION XII.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE government of Afghanistan is unsettled, and hence its political divisions are variable. In 1809 the kingdom was divided into twenty-seven provinces, eighteen of which were superintended by resident hakims, who collected the revenue and commanded the troops; and the remaining nine of which were almost wholly inhabited by pastoral tribes, who were principally governed by their own chiefs. These nine provinces comprised almost the whole of the kingdom; the others being only small populous districts, chiefly inhabited by people of foreign origin. Towns, indeed, are almost wholly inhabited by Persians and Indians; an Afghan never keeps a shop, or exercises any trade. The only Afghans found in towns are the officers of government and their followers, namely, soldiers, priests, and domestic servants.

The chief towns of Afghanistan are Caubul, Candahar, Ghizni, Balk, Cashmere, and Herat.

Caubul, the capital of the Afghan empire, is situated on the Caubul, in a large well-watered plain, filled with villages. The town is celebrated for its fine climate, and it is surrounded with beautiful gardens. Here is the tomb of the celebrated emperor and historian Baber, who was a descendant of Timour, and an ancestor of the Great Moguls. Balk was anciently a populous and magnificent city, but it was captured in 1221 by Ghenghis Khan, and was at that time so greatly reduced that it has never regained its former splendour. Candahar is on the site of an ancient city, conjectured to have been one of

those founded by Alexander the Great. The town is of comparatively modern date, but it contains about 60,000

GHIZNI.

inhabitants. Ghizni was once the capital of an empire reaching from the Tigris to the Ganges, but is now reduced to a mere country town. Among its remains is the tomb of Sultan Mahmood, the conqueror of India. From the great number of noted persons interred at Ghizni, it was called the second Medina. It was stormed by the British in 1839. Cashmere is the capital of a province of the same name, which is noted for its fertility and beauty, and for its romantic and delightful scenery. Herat is one of the most ancient and renowned cities in Asia. It was the capital of the empire of Tamerlane, from whose descendants it passed into the hands of the Persian monarchs, from whom it was taken by the Afghans.

The religion of the Afghans is the Mohammedan, but they are not so bigoted as Mohammedans usually are. Hindoos and Christians live peaceably and respected among them. The education of the Afghan youthful population is by no means neglected. Every village has a school, which is generally kept by a priest.

The government of Afghanistan is a limited monarchy. The king may make peace and war, and he has the control of the revenue, but this is almost the extent of his power. He is, in fact, king only of one of the many tribes into which the nation of the Afghans is divided, namely, the Duranees; his right over other tribes simply extends to

the levying troops and the collection of revenue. Over those of his subjects who are not Afghans his power is even less limited; and in ruling over his own tribe he is controlled by the Duranee lords. The crown is hereditary in his family, but elective as to the person. The chiefs of the different tribes are chosen from the oldest family. Their task of governing the clans is often very difficult, for their republican spirit is so strong that they hate the rule of a master.

HINDOOSTAN.

SECTION XIII.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE term Hindoostan has been adopted by geographers to designate that part of India, or the East Indies, which was formerly called the peninsula within the Ganges; a country which extends from Cape Comorin, its most southern extremity, to the foot of the Himalaya range and the mountain chains which separate the high table-land of Persia from the low plain traversed by the Indus. The greatest length of this country is about 1,900 miles, and its greatest breadth about 1,600 miles; its area is somewhat more than 1,400,000 square miles, or nearly three times the extent of France and Austria taken together.

Hindoostan is usually divided into Gangetic, Sindetic, Central, and Southern India. It may, however, be considered under three grand divisions; namely, Hindoostan Proper, the Deccan, and the Peninsula.

Hindoostan Proper includes all the countries that lie north of the river Nerbudda, and the provinces of Bahar and Bengal. The chief provinces in Hindoostan Proper are Agra, Cashmere, Delhi, Guzerat, Lahore, Malwa, Moultan, Oude, Kohilkund, Sind, Bengal, Bahar, Allahabad, and Ajimere.

The Deccan, which signifies the south, comprises the countries situated between Hindoostan Proper, the Carnatic, the Western Indian Ocean, and Orissa. These countries are the provinces of Candeish, Aurungabad, Bajapour, Golconda, and the western part of Berar, Orissa, and the northern Circars.

The Peninsula is all that tract of country south of the river Kistna; and it comprises the Carnatic, Mysore, Tanjore, Madura, Travancour, Calicut, and others of less note.

The chief mountains of Hindoostan are the Himalaya, which form its north-eastern boundary, and the Ghauts, situate in the south, on both the east and west. Its chief rivers are the Ganges, Indus, Nerbudda, Godavery, Kistna, and Cavery. The Ganges has a course of about 1,500 miles, and is one of the noblest rivers in the world. The Hindoos hold its waters in high veneration; they believe that they possess virtue sufficient to purify them from every transgression.

Hindoostan possesses many fertile table-lands and valleys. Its chief productions are rice, cotton, indigo, tobacco, the sugar cane, and various kinds of grain. Immense tracts of land along the sea are covered with cocoa-palms; and the country produces a great variety of fruits, including some common to England.

The chief domestic animals of Hindoostan are cattle, elephants, and buffaloes, all which are distinguished by their size. In some parts wild elephants are numerous; also tigers, leopards, hyænas, and jackals. In some parts sheep, goats, and dogs are found in a wild state; and some large species of deer are common. Game abounds everywhere. The lion is chiefly seen among the northern mountains.

Of the mineral riches of Hindoostan, the diamond stands pre-eminent. The diamond mines of Mallavilly are the most celebrated in the world: they belong to the Nizam of Golconda, though they are situated in the British territory.

SECTION XIV.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

All the great states of Hindoostan have been reduced in power and consequence by the British. The whole of the Mogul empire may now be considered either as in the possession or under the actual control of the British government. The population of the British possessions in Hindoostan amounts to nearly 135,000,000; that of the

British allies and tributaries, to about 40,000,000 while; that of the independent states only amounts to about 5,000,000. This shows the extent of British influence in Hindoostan. No state is able to contend with its power; and history shows that it is vain for states combined to dispute the authority of the British sceptre. Most of the far-famed cities of Hindoostan are at the present time garrisoned and kept by British soldiers, with the police, and some native troops.

The most remarkable cities of Hindoostan are Calcutta, Seringapatam, Delhi, Cashmere, Arcot, Agra, Lahore, Calicut, Hyderabad, Benares, and Lucknow.

Calcutta is the metropolis of the British-Indian empire, and the residence of the English governor. It was the capture of this city, in 1757, by Colonel Clive, that first laid the foundation of the extensive British empire in Hindoostan. Delhi was the metropolis of Hindoostan in the fourteenth century, but it was then taken by Tamerlane, who wantonly massacred 100,000 of its inhabitants; from that time it has been greatly reduced in importance. In consequence of its share in the late rebellion, and the cruelties perpetrated on British subjects by the King of Delhi, it was taken by storm, and nearly reduced to ruins. Seringapatam, the capital of Mysore, is situated on an island in the river Cavery. This city was twice captured, between the years 1790 and 1800, by the English, in their wars with Hyder Ali, a Mohammedan soldier of fortune, and his son, Tippoo Saib. Arcot is the capital of the Carnatic, in possession of the British, and is celebrated for a noble defence, made under Captain Clive, against the besieging forces of India. Benares is celebrated chiefly as being the ancient seat of Brahminical learning: its great temple was once as much resorted to by the Hindoo worshippers as Mecca was by the Mohammedans. It has been subject to Britain from the year 1775. Hyderabad is the chief city of Golconda, and the capital of the territory of the nizam. Calicut is chiefly noted for its commerce; it was the first Indian port known to Europeans. Agra, on the Jumna, was once the capital of the Mogul empire: it

is now subject to the British, who took it from the Mahrattas in 1803. Lahore, in the Punjaub, is the capital of the province of the same name. Lucknow, the capital of Oude, is memorable for the gallant defence made by a few British soldiers and residents, till the capture of the city and the relief of the besieged by Havelock and Outram in 1858.

As regards the government of Hindoostan, little need be said. Those territories which are under the sway of Great Britain are governed by English laws; and the spirit of these laws is spread throughout the whole of Hindoostan. The presidencies of the English, by which their oriental territories are governed, are at Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras.

HINDOO IDOL, VISHNU.

The religion of Hindoostan is chiefly, as it has been for ages, that of Buddhism and Brahminism; but by the exertions of the missionaries sent out by voluntary contributions from English Christians many have been converted to the faith of the Gospel: and it seems probable that the result of the recent horrible rebellion will be to open a wide and effectual door for the spread of Divine truth.

CHINA.

SECTION XV.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

China is an extensive country in eastern Asia, constituting the principal portion of the Chinese empire. Its average length is about 2,000 miles, and its greatest breadth about 1,400 miles. Its whole area is about 1,297,990 square miles. China is surrounded by countries dependent upon it, except at its south-western and southern side, where it borders on the Birman empire and the kingdoms of Siam and Cochin China, of which the last only seems to be subjected to China. The countries dependent on China are Chinese Tartary, Thibet, Little Bucharia, and the peninsula

of Corea, altogether giving an area of about 5,500,000 square miles. Off the coasts of China, also, there are numerous islands dependent on it, and there are others which, by a recent treaty, are in the possession of the British.

The whole surface of China may be divided into the mountainous country, the hilly country, and the great plain.

The mountainous country comprehends more than half of the whole, and its mountains are commonly too steep and rugged to admit of much cultivation. A great part of them is covered with high trees, but towards the north they are mostly bare; and these contain immense beds of coal. Between the mountains are numerous valleys, well watered by mountain streams, the soil of which is very fertile.

The hilly country lies to the east of 112° east longitude. The hills generally rise with a gentle ascent, and their sides are cultivated and planted with rice, on the terrace system; their tops are covered with forest trees. The levels between the hills are sometimes narrowed into valleys; in other places they expand into plains. The greatest portion of this surface is in a high state of cultivation.

The great plain occupies the north-eastern part of China. The northern part of this plain has a dry, sandy soil, but it produces wheat and millet in abundance. Southward, the whole tract along the coast is low and swampy, being partly covered with lakes and lagunes, and intersected by numerous water-courses. It produces large quantities of rice. Farther inland, the soil is more firm and dry, and of great fertility, which is increased by the abundance of water drawn from the rivers and lakes. The southern districts bordering on the banks of the Yang-tse-kiang differ from the other in not being a flat level; but it is not less fertile than other districts. Among the most valuable branches of agriculture in this district is tea, which is here extensively cultivated. The eastern

TEA TREE.

portion of this plain is traversed by the Great or Imperial canal, the length of which is nearly 700 miles. The fertility of the soil and the advantages resulting from the internal navigation afforded by this canal and its many branches, have rendered this plain the most populous spot on the earth. The provinces it comprises contain a population of about 180,000,000, or more than two-thirds of the whole population of Europe.

A distinguishing feature in the climate of China is the unusual excess in which heat and cold prevail in some parts of the empire at opposite seasons of the year. The rivers are said to be frozen from December to March, while during September the heat in the shade sometimes is between 90 and 100 degrees. It is certain, however, that the climate of China is favourable to vegetation; and it is equally certain that its soil is the best watered upon the face of the globe. Its chief rivers are the Hoang-ho and the Yang-tse-kiang, the course of each of which is about 2,000 miles.

Among the domestic animals of China, which are comparatively few, are the horse, sheep, pig, dog, ass, and mule. The carnivorous quadrupeds are by no means common. The tiger is found in the forests of Yunnân, and the woods of the south abound in a small but fierce description of wild cat, which is fattened in cages for the table. Other wild animals are a species of antelope, the one-horned rhinoceros, and the common rat, which grows to a very large size, and is eaten by the lower orders of Chinese.

China abounds in wild fowl of every description. Its ornithology is distinguished by some splendid varieties of gallinaceous birds, as the gold and silver pheasants. Among its miscellaneous birds may be mentioned the quail, ring-dove, and a particular species of crow, which has white about the neck.

Of fishes, the golden carp is one of the most distinguished kinds, and has long been bred in Europe, from specimens brought by the Dutch to Holland. Its rivers and seas abound in fish of every kind, but that which is most valued by the native epicures is the sturgeon.

Of reptiles, China has only those of the smaller description of lizard, water tortoises, frogs, and small snakes. Among insects, the locust is common, and rewards are given for its destruction.

China abounds in fruits and flowers, many of which are peculiar to that country.

The metals and minerals of China are numerous; among them may be mentioned coal, marble, alabaster, nephrite, gold, silver, copper, zinc, and quicksilver.

SECTION XVI.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

CHINA is politically divided into provinces, of which seven extend over the great plain, two comprehend the hilly districts, two others the mountainous countries along the sea, seven others the mountainous country in the interior, and one which extends along the northern shores of the Hoango-Hai, or Yellow sea.

TOWER AT PEKIN.

China is said to contain upwards of four hundred walled cities; but the chief are Pekin, the capital, Nankin, and Canton. All these cities are of great extent and very populous; but the harbour of Canton was till recently the only one in the whole empire much frequented by Europeans, and hence very little is known concerning them. By the treaty of 1858 the ports of Amoy, Foochew, Ningpo, and Shanghai were opened to foreigners, and the Yang-tse-kiang was to be free to the trade of all nations. One of the greatest curiosities of art in the world is the great wall of China. It is nearly 1,500

miles long, about thirty feet high, and so thick that six horsemen could ride along the top side by side. It was erected as a barrier against the invasion of the Tartars.

The religion of the Chinese is threefold: the religion of

GREAT WALL OF CHINA.

the state, or that taught by Confucius and his disciples: Taouism, or a peculiar faith taught by the hermit Laou Keun, which inculcates a contempt of riches, honours, and worldly distinctions; and Buddhism, the features of which greatly vary from the same faith taught in Hindoostan. The emperor is head of the state religion, and, as high-priest of the empire, can alone, with his immediate representatives, sacrifice in the government temples. No hierarchy exists, nor is any priest attached to the Confucian or state religion: the sovereign and his great officers perform that part. The two separate religious orders of Buddha, and Taou, are only tolerated; and they derive support from their own funds and voluntary contributions.

The government of China is an absolute despotism, and the succession depends on the will of the emperor. The exemplar, or type, of political rule in the country is that of the authority of a father over his family. Thus the emperor is called "the father of the empire," the viceroy of the province over which he presides, and the mandarin or magistrate of the city over which he governs. The details

of government business are distributed among six boards, or tribunals. These are the board of official appointments, which takes cognisance of the conduct of all civil officers; the board of revenue, which regulates all fiscal matters; the board of rites and ceremonies; the military board; the board of criminal jurisdiction; and the board of public works. The penal code of China is very arbitrary, but for the repression of disorder, and the coercion of a vast population, it is in general efficacious. The severity of the penal code

CHINESE PUNISHMENT.

CHINESE CAGE.

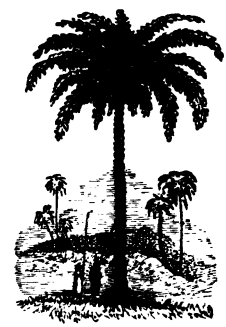
of China appears chiefly in those cases wherein the safety of the government is involved: apart from these, benevolent traits are sometimes discernible. That the Chinese themselves are generally satisfied with the administration of the country, is far from certain; and the rebellion which has for the last 3 or 4 years distracted much of the country, threatens eventually to change all its aspects and relations.

INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES.

SECTION XVII.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY, &c.

INDIA beyond the Ganges, or that peninsula which lies between Hindoostan and China, comprises the Birman empire, the united kingdoms of Cochin China and Tonquin, the kingdoms of Siam, Laos, Cambodia and Malaya, exclusive of Aracan and other territories lately gained from the Birmans by the British.

The Birman Empire extends over more than one-fourth of the peninsula beyond the Ganges, and contains nearly the double of the area of the British islands. Its whole length, from the western mouth of the river Irawaddi to its source in the Bor Khamti, is about 950 miles, and its average width is about 200 miles. The country is very mountainous, but there are numerous valleys and plains, which are well watered by rivers, the chief of which is the Irawaddi.



PALM-TREE.

The chief agricultural productions of Birmah are rice, wheat, maize, millet, various pulses, palms, sugar-cane, tobacco, cotton, and indigo. Tea is cultivated in certain districts. Fruit-trees are numerous, but little attention is paid to them, and still less to the growth of vegetables. The forests abound in fine timber trees, among which the teak holds the first place.

The domestic animals of Birmah are the ox, the buffalo, the horse, the hog, the dog, and the cat; the wild quadrupeds are the elephant, rhinoceros, hog, deer, oxen, buffalo, bear, tiger, leopard, and wild and civet cats. Of poultry, only a few common fowls and ducks are reared. Its most common birds are the peacock, jungle fowl, pigeon, parrot, partridge, quail, ducks, and snipes. Fish abound in the Irawaddi; and they constitute a main article of the diet of the population.

Among the metals and minerals of Birmah are gold, precious stones, amber, coal, lead, antimony, silver, copper, iron, and tin. In general, however, the metallic riches of the country are much neglected.

The chief towns of Birmah are Ava, the capital, Ummerapoora, Pegu, and Rangoon. These towns, however, are not to be compared with those of Europe. Even in Ava they are generally mere huts thatched with grass;

and the dwellings of chiefs are simply constructed with planks, and tiled. The only striking buildings it contains are its temples, all of which are surmounted by tall, white, or gilded spires.

The religion of the Birmans is that of Buddha. The sovereign of Birmah, who is called Boa, is lord of the life and property of his subjects. The country and people are entirely at his disposal; and the chief object of government is his personal honour and aggrandisement. Among the Birmans there is no hereditary nobility. The chief officers are appointed and dismissed at a nod; and neither their titles, rank, nor office, and sometimes not even their property, can descend to their children.

Cochin China and Tonquin lie on the eastern side of the peninsula, beyond the Ganges, from the western coasts of the Chinese Sea and Gulf of Tonquin. Cochin China has a sea-coast of 500 miles: its capital is Hue; and its chief port, Turon, one of the finest on the globe. Tonquin has a line of coast exceeding 200 miles; its capital is Kesho. Connected with these countries, and under the same sovereign, is Siampa, a small country, lying between Cambodia and Cochin China.

Laos is a considerable country in the interior of India, beyond the Ganges, surrounded with mountains and covered with forests which produce excellent timber. The soil is represented as being very fertile; and its inhabitants are chiefly employed in agriculture, and the cultivation of rice and cotton. The country possesses mines of iron, lead and tin, and precious stones. Laos forms a portion of the Birman empire: its chief town is Mohang-Laung.

Cambodia is a maritime country; and, although very hot, mountainous and woody, is said to be very fertile. It is frequently called Camboge, from a celebrated gum found in the country, which yields a fine yellow tint. This country, also, forms a part of the Birman empire.

Siam comprehends a vast extent of country in the peninsula beyond the Ganges, and the larger part of the

Malay peninsula. It is the largest of the three empires contained in this peninsula, having an area of about 290,000 square miles. A considerable portion of this surface is covered with mountains and hills; the remainder consists of islands, plains, valleys, lakes, and rivers.

Siam is rich in natural productions. Rice is grown so abundantly that, with the exception of Bengal, Siam exports more than any country. Among its other productions are maize roots of various kinds, and the cocoa and areca palms. Fruit-trees are very abundant, and their produce surpasses that of all other parts in flavour. Several other plants are cultivated for foreign trade, as the sugar-cane, tobacco, black pepper, and cotton. The forests of Siam contain many valuable timber trees, several articles of trade, as a gum which resembles benzoin, gamboge, and gutta percha.

TOBACCO.

Among the quadrupeds, domestic and wild, which are found in Siam, are the elephant, buffalo, black cattle, horse, goat, hog, rhinoceros, tiger, leopard, civet, ourang-outang, and several kinds of deer. Fowls in their wild state exist in the forest, and the common fowl is reared in the lower countries. Fish is abundant, and crocodiles and tortoises are seen in the Menam.

The metals and minerals of Siam are gold, tin, iron, lead, copper, zinc, antimony, and salt: its precious stones, the sapphire, the oriental ruby, and the oriental topaz.

Siam is composed of countries which constitute the kingdom of Siam, and are immediately subject to the sovereign, and of tributary countries governed by their own princes, who are dependent on the king of Siam. The tributary princes inhabit the countries north and south of the kingdom.

The chief towns of Siam are Bang-kok, its present capital, Ayuthia, its ancient capital, Bang-pa-söe, Chan-ti-bun, Tung-hay, Pi-sa-luk, and various other towns, which are chiefly commercial. None of the cities of Siam, however, are distinguished for splendour and magnificence.

In a commercial point of view, Siam is considered the most important of the three empires which divide among them the countries of the peninsula beyond the Ganges. All the provinces of the empire produce some articles which are in demand in foreign countries. and nearly all the foreign commerce is concentrated at its capital, Bang-kok. Its chief articles of export are grain, cotton, sapan wood, oil, timber, benzoin, stick-lac, varnish, raw hides, raw silk, ivory, horns, and gamboge. The most important branch of foreign trade is that carried on with China. It is said that the trade of Bang-kok far exceeds that of any other Asiatic port, with the exception of Canton.

The religion of the Siamese is similar to that of the Birmans. The government is despotic; the king is only known by these epithets,—"the Sacred Head of Heads," "the Sacred Head of Lives," "the Owner of All," &c. His subjects do not even dare to inquire after his health; however ill he may be, he must be considered free from bodily infirmities; and to imagine his death is considered high treason.

Malaya is that part of the peninsula beyond the Ganges which extends from Siam to the southward, and which is more than 600 miles in length. The northern part of this territory is under the Siamese; the southern, with the exception of some European settlements on the coast, is divided among several kingdoms, all of which, though under the protection of Britain, are very little known.

The soil of this tract of country is not distinguished for its fertility, being in most places composed of a tough red clay, or of a black earth, similar to peat. Some parts, however, yield rich crops of rice, and the whole country produces an abundance of fruits. Pepper, cotton, and coffee are cultivated as articles of commerce. The country

is generally covered with high trees; and the variety of trees and plants is very great.

Cattle are few in number, but buffaloes abound. Hogs and fowls are plentiful; and the wild animals are the elephant, tiger, leopard, and rhinoceros. Among the birds, that kind of swallow which constructs edible nests is the most remarkable. Fish is plentiful, and constitutes one of the most common articles of food.

The metals of Malaya, or Malacca, are chiefly gold and tin, which form its most important articles of commerce. Gold is found in all the rivers, and is also obtained from mines.

The chief towns of Malaya are Malacca (which is under the protection of Great Britain) and Queda.

The Malays are a commercial people, and very active; but they are restless, fond of adventure, navigation, war, and plunder. They are very revengeful; and among the different ways of taking revenge, is the extraordinary one of "running a-muck." Recently, however, they have made considerable progress in civilization, which tends to soften down the asperities of human nature.

The religion of the Malays is chiefly Mohammedan, with a mixture of Paganism. Their government is despotic.

Aracan is contiguous to Bengal on the east, and may, therefore, be considered as included in Hindoostan. It has a sea-coast of more than 300 miles, by about 80 in breadth. Its capital, Aracan, stands on a river of the same name, and is very large and populous.

Assam is a small state, to the northward of Aracan. Taken by the British in 1826. It is about 700 miles in length by about 80 in breadth. This country is noted for its elephants, and is rich in gold, silver, iron, steel, and lead. It also produces large quantities of sugar, pepper, ginger, and cocoa. Its capital is Ghergong, which is an extensive town, possessed of a fine palace. The habitations of the Assamese, however, consist only of thatched huts with walls of bamboo mats, supported by posts, with arched roofs and mud floors. Each apartment forms a separate

hut. In such huts are lodged nobility, as well as the poorest man in the country. But notwithstanding their rude habits, the Assamese have made considerable progress in agriculture. The country is inhabited by different tribes, who differ both in manners and in religion. Thus the inhabitants of the plains, who are of Hindoo extraction, profess Brahminism, while those who inhabit the mountains are mostly Buddhists.

On the north-west of Aracan, and the north-east side of the bay of Bengal, is the British territory of Chittagong. To the north-east of this is Cassay, an independent country abounding in forests. Its capital is Munnipour.

Such are the various countries of the eastern peninsula, or India beyond the Ganges. Of most of them little is known, and hence the brevity of this description.

JAPAN.

SECTION XVIII.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

JAPAN is an empire of Asia, which consists of an unknown number of islands of different dimensions; which islands are situated in the Pacific Ocean. The empire is divided into Proper Japan, and the dependent islands. Proper Japan consists of three large islands, Kioosioo, Sitkokf, and Nipon, which are surrounded by numerous small islands. The dependent countries are the large island of Yeso, with some of the Kurile islands, and the southern districts of Tarakai. All these latter islands are but imperfectly known; not even the coasts are laid down with any degree of exactness.

Little is known of the climate of Japan; but that it is of a genial nature is clear, from the state of agriculture in that country. In no part of the world is agriculture carried to a higher perfection than Japan. All the declivities of the hills are formed into terraces or beds, which terraces are cultivated with the utmost care.

The chief agricultural productions of Japan are rice, wheat, barley, rye, and cotton. Vegetables of every

description abound: different kinds of beans are raised in astonishing abundance. Ginger, pepper, and the tea-shrub are also cultivated; and the orchards are stocked with the fruit-trees of southern Europe, as oranges, lemons, figs, grapes, and pomegranates: they likewise produce chestnuts, pears, peaches, and cherries. In this country are found the varnish-tree, the cedar, the bamboo cane, and the camphor-tree.

The domestic animals of Japan are the horse (which is only used for the saddle by the princes), horned cattle, and swine. Of wild animals, only the hare seems to be common; but deer, bears, and others, occur in the eastern and northern parts of Nipon. Fowls, ducks, and geese are plentiful, and fish is abundant. Numerous villages are only inhabited by fishermen.

Japan abounds in mineral wealth: the principal articles are gold, silver, iron, salt, and fine clay. The sea produces pearls and ambergris.

SECTION XIX.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

JAPAN contains numerous towns: the smaller of these contain five hundred houses, and the larger two thousand and upwards. Only one town, that of Nagasaki, was open to foreigners, till 1858, when the trade of the country was thrown open. This is one of the five imperial towns of the empire. Among the other towns of Japan are Sanga, Kokoora, Nipon, Muru, Osacca, Sakai, Meaco (the residence of the ecclesiastical emperor), Mia, and Yedo. Yedo is the capital of the empire, and is situated at the northern extremity of the gulf of the same name, in an extensive plain. According to the Japanese, it is ten miles long and seven miles wide; and all travellers agree that it is the largest town in the empire, containing a population of 1,300,000. A large river runs through the town, and sends off a considerable arm, which encloses the imperial palace, or that of the kouba, or secular emperor.

In manufacturing industry the Japanese seem to be on an equality with the Chinese. Their manufactures in

metals, silk, cotton, china, glass, paper, and cabinet work, are highly esteemed. They also make excellent watches and clocks, and a recent traveller mentions telescopes and thermometers.

The most ancient religion of the Japanese is that of the Sinto, who is supposed to be the offspring of the Sun and the founder of the royal family. The greater part of the inhabitants, however, have embraced Buddhism, while a considerable number adhere to the doctrines of the Chinese philosopher, Confucius.

The government of Japan is despotic, but the emperor himself is considered as subject to the laws of the empire. Formerly the ecclesiastical emperor, or the daïri soma, the head of the Sinto religion, was the only sovereign of the empire, but he now rules only in matters of religion. He was deprived in 1585 of his secular position by the chief general, whose descendants still govern the empire, under the title of kouba soma. All dignities, offices, and employments are hereditary in Japan; a circumstance which is supposed to keep society quiet, though it prevents improvement.

THE ASIATIC ISLANDS.

SECTION XX.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ETC.

The principal Asiatic islands, excluding those of the Japanese empire, are Borneo, Sumatra, Java, the Philippine Isles, the Moluccas and Spice Islands, the Celebean Isles, and the Landrone Isles.

Borneo is one of the largest islands in the world: it is situated under the equator, and abounds in valuable products, both animal, vegetable, and mineral. Hitherto it has ranked lower than any of the Eastern islands in the arts of civilization, but recently it has made considerable improvement. The interior of the island is covered with immense forests, which abound with wild animals, and especially with the ourang-outang. The population of the interior consists of aborigines, under various names; but

its coasts are mostly inhabited by Chinese, Malayan, Japanese, and Dutch colonists.

Sumatra is a large island in the Indian Ocean, the area of which is more than 160,000 square miles. Its surface consists of a mountain region, a hilly district, and a great plain. It contains many fine rivers, some of which are navigable. It is a fertile country, producing various kinds of rice, maize, almost every species of vegetables, and a great variety of fruit and other trees. This country was once noted for gold; and a considerable quantity is still exported. The interior of the island is occupied by aborigines, governed by native chiefs. Bencoolen is the chief town, which is now in the possession of the Dutch, it having been exchanged by the English East India Company, in 1824, for some Dutch settlements in Hindoostan.

Java is separated from Sumatra by the Strait of Sunda, and is about 700 miles in length. It is the most fertile and populous of all the East India islands. Its inhabitants resemble those of Sumatra in their general habits, and they speak the Malay language. The Dutch claim the sovereignty, and possess the trade of this island. The city of Batavia, in the north-west of Java, is the capital of the Dutch Indian possessions. Java is well adapted for extensive commerce, and its exports are numerous, including coffee, sugar, rice, pepper, and arrack.

The Philippine Islands, and the Ladrone or Marian Isles, belong to Spain.

The Moluccas and Spice Islands belong to the Netherlands.

The Celebes is a large island separated from Borneo by the Strait of Macassar. It is divided into several small, independent states, concerning several of which little is known. Some of the states, however, are governed by native chiefs, and some are under the dominion of the Dutch. The island is for the most part fertile, and it possesses gold and iron. Its principal town is Macassar, the chief establishment of the Dutch in Celebes.

The Maldives are a vast cluster of islets to the westward of Ceylon, in the Indian Ocean. They are founded upon coral. The chief island is Malé, which is the residence of the king, and from which the whole cluster derives its name. The king assumes the title of Sultan of the Maldives, king of thirteen provinces and twelve thousand isles. The islands are noted for the cocoa-tree.

The Laccadives, a scattered group of islands, lies to the north of the Maldives. They are chiefly noted for ambergris.

The Andaman and Nicobar islands are situated near the entrance of the Bay of Bengal. Their inhabitants for the most part are in a state of barbarism, and live chiefly on fish, fruit, and herbs. These islands, however, furnish provisions to those who touch there. In 1793 the English formed a settlement on the great Andaman Isle, which is named Port Cornwallis. It possesses a good harbour, which is an excellent shelter for ships during the north-east monsoons.

Book the Fifth.

CHAPTER I.

AFRICA.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

FRICA, one of the great divisions of the globe, is an enormous peninsula, partly attached to the Asiatic mass by the Isthmus of Suez, and closely approaching to the respective continents of Asia and Europe at the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb and those of Gibraltar. This quarter of the globe is nearly 5,000 miles in length from north to south, and about 4,500 in breadth from east to west. The equator cuts it into two masses of unequal magnitude. The greater part of it lies in the torrid zone, which, together with the large tracts of burning sand, renders the heat in many places almost insupportable. Many parts of it, however, are inhabited, though it is less populous than either Europe, Asia, or America.

Africa is watered by many noble rivers, of which the most considerable are the Nile, the Niger, the Zambeze, the Gambia, and the Senegal. The mountain system of Africa must, in many cases, be inferred from the course of these rivers. Thus the waters of the Bahr-el-Abiad, or the true Nile, descend from a remote region westward, which has been only partially explored, but which is most likely a mountain range connected with the high lands of Abyssinia. Africa, indeed, has hitherto been so imperfectly explored that this division of the world cannot be satisfactorily described. . The recent researches of Dr. Livingstone, and other African travellers, bid fair to open

up to us the whole interior of this long hidden portion of the globe. In Northern Africa, the grand characteristic feature is the Sahara, or Great Desert. The countries north of the Sahara, which are sometimes called the Atlas regions, have now come more under European influences. The interior country, watered by the Quorra and other streams, which is in general described as a fertile region, cannot yet be accurately defined. For the most part, indeed, Africa is not well known to Europeans; but the fact that it is one of the most important divisions of the globe, serves to stimulate enquiry and adventure.

In the animal kingdom, Africa is rich in the number of its peculiar species. Among its quadrupeds are the camel; the horse, wild and tame; horned cattle of various kinds, some peculiar to Africa alone; sheep, dogs, and a great variety of goats. Among the wild animals of Africa, the most remarkable is the chimpanzee, or pongo, which approaches much nearer to the human form than the ourang-outang, or wild man of Borneo Sumatra. Carnivorous and ferocious animals are very numerous in Africa, as the

ELEPHANT.

lion, leopard, panther, hyæna, civet, and ichneumon. Among the wild hoofed animals are the elephant, rhinoceros, giraffe, hippopotamus, zebra, dow, and quagga. Of antelopes there are eighty species in existence, sixty of which are proper to this continent.

The ornithology of Africa is not so peculiar as its

mammalia. Many of our European species, as the quail, the land-rail, the cuckoo, and the different varieties of swallows, migrate for the winter to that continent. Others of our common species, also, are spread over the whole eastern hemisphere, without presenting any sensible difference, even in the colour of a feather. One bird there is, however, peculiar to Africa, namely, the ostrich; and similar to the ostrich in many of their habits, and even somewhat in appearance, are the bustards, of which there are many different species. There are also the flamingo, parrot, and ibis. Domestic poultry are common in every part of Africa; and wild fowl are abundant in its lakes and rivers. Lizards, including the crocodile, serpents, and reptiles, abound: and of the insect tribes, Africa contains many thousand different kinds.

African vegetation presents different aspects in different parts of the continent. To the traveller who passes from the south of Europe to Tangier, the appearance of the African coast presents nothing remarkably different from what he has left in Europe. As soon, however, as the chain of Atlas is passed, the scene begins to change: the excessive dryness of the climate is such that few trees except the date can exist. Beneath the shade of the groves of date-trees, however, the orange, lemon, pomegranate, and vine, not only flourish, but acquire a more delicious flavour than in what would seem a more favourable climate. In the equinoctial parts of Africa, all trees of European vegetation disappear—even the date-tree will not grow there—but the landscape is characterised by trees, plants, and shrubs peculiar to the continent.

PAPYRUS.

Here grow the unwieldy baobab, the palm, the cotton, and the chandelier trees. Prickly grasses or waving thickets of papyrus also cover the plains. As the southern part of the continent is approached, a new change passes over the face of Nature. Here commences an order of vegetable beings so different that their very genera had been previously unseen. These are chiefly succulent plants, holding to the soil by a single wiry root, and feeding rather upon the dews of heaven than the moisture of the earth. Among these grow stunted bushes of heath, succulent geraniums, strong-scented bucku plants, and a great variety of shrubby *compositæ*.

The minerals and earths of Africa known to commerce are gold, silver, copper, iron, tin, lead, salt, coal, and sulphur.

The whole of Africa is supposed to contain about 60,000,000 of inhabitants. It contains no great empires or kingdoms; and we shall therefore consider it under the following divisions.

1. Northern Africa, which comprises Egypt and the states of Barbary.

2. Eastern Africa, comprising Nubia, Abyssinia, Adel, Ajan, Zanguebar, Mozambique, and Mocaranga.

3. Western Africa, comprehending Lower Guinea, Upper Guinea, Loango, Congo, Angola, and Benguela.

4. Southern Africa, comprising Caffraria and Cape Colony; and the interior regions, consisting of Sahara, or the Great Desert; Negroland, and other countries but little known.

5. The African islands.

It may be mentioned that Africa was originally planted by the posterity of Ham, the son of Noah. Its peculiar races, at the present day, are the Hottentots and Caffres, which occupy the southern regions; the Negro, which some writers denote the Ethiopian, and which consists of a great variety of tribes; the Moors, the Arabs, and the Copts, or descendants of the Egyptians. In the Atlas mountains are the Berbers and Shelluhs, who are supposed to be the descendants of the primitive inhabitants

CHAPTER II.—NORTHERN AFRICA.

EGYPT.

SECTION I.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Egypt is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean; on the east by the little river El Arish, on the borders of Palestine and the Red Sea; on the south by the rapids or cataracts of Assouan; and on the west by the Libyan desert. The length of the country is very disproportionate to its breadth, but neither are well defined.

Egypt may properly be considered under each of these four great divisions:—1. The Valley of the Nile; 2. The Delta; 3. The Western Desert and the Oasis therein enclosed; 4. The Eastern Country towards the Red Sea.

The Valley of the Nile is that part of Egypt through which the river Nile flows as it descends from Nubia. This valley lies between two ridges of rocky hills, which rise in some places 1,000 feet above the level of the river. Its breadth is very unequal; it is seldom more than ten miles, and in some places it is not two, including the breadth of the river, which varies from two to four thousand feet.

The Delta is a wide, low plain, at the bottom of the valley of the Nile; and it is so called from its triangular form and its resemblance to the Greek letter Δ. On reaching this plain the Nile divides into two branches, that of Rosetta, and that of Damietta; and the figure of the Delta is determined by these two branches.

The Western or Libyan Desert is an extensive tract of country occupied by independent tribes of nomadic Arabs. This tract of country embraces a succession of oases—fertile spots, which contrast strangely with the desert by which they are enclosed. These oases contain towns and villages, and their inhabitants are tributary to Egypt.

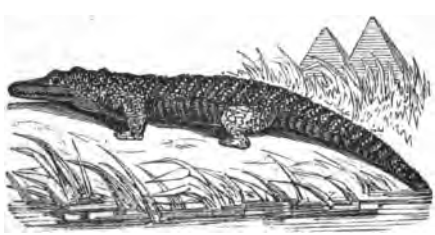
The Eastern Country is a large tract of land between the valley of the Nile and the Red Sea. Its general character is that of a mountainous region, which, although generally rocky and barren, is intersected by numerous ravines, fertilized by springs, and clothed with vegetation. This whole tract is divided among several Arab tribes, who, for the most part, lead a nomadic life. The only fixed habitations, are at the port of Cosseir and at the Coptic monasteries of St. Anthony and St. Paul.

The climate of Egypt, during the greater part of the year, is very salubrious. As for fertility, there is no country of Africa which can be compared with it, especially in the district of the valley of the Nile. The peculiar fertility of the soil of Egypt, indeed, arises from the fertilizing influences of this noble river.

Rain seldom falls in Egypt; hence the annual inundation of the Nile is waited for with much interest. Those parts of the country which have been overflowed produce great quantities of corn; and those that are irrigated by means of canals and other hydraulic contrivances, produce large crops of rice, cotton, indigo, &c.

The agricultural produce of Egypt consists chiefly of rice, wheat, dates, indigo, cotton, and sugar.

The chief animals of Egypt are horses, oxen, camels, antelopes, tigers, and hyænas; but the most remarkable are the crocodile, the hippopotamus, the chameleon, the ichneumon, or Egyptian rat, and a large species of ape.



CROCODILE.

Its principal birds are ostriches, eagles, hawks, pelicans, herons, and ibis. Among its reptiles is the asp, the poison of which is most deadly.

Anciently Egypt was celebrated for its gold and silver mines. There were, also, mines of copper, lead, iron, and emeralds, which still exist in the deserts of the Red Sea. The same districts, also, abound in sulphur.

SECTION II.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE administration of Egypt is by provinces, or prefectships, of which there are fifteen in Lower Egypt, and ten in Middle and Upper Egypt together.

TEMPLE OF LUXOR.

In ancient times Egypt contained a number of celebrated cities, as Thebes, Heliopolis, Zoan, Syene, Memphis, and others. Time has swept all these either entirely away, or has left only vestiges for the admiration of the traveller. The site of Thebes is occupied by four villages, Luxor and Carnac on the eastern, and Gournon and Medinet Abou on the western side of the river. Many specimens of ancient Egyptian architecture are still extant here. The chief cities of Egypt, at the present day, are Cairo, the capital, Alexandria, Rosetta, Damietta, and Suez.

Cairo is a large and populous city, its inhabitants being 300,000, and contains a castle said to have been built by the celebrated Saladin, many beautiful mosques, the Nilometer, many manufactures, and a considerable trade. Near it lies the village of Giza which is thought to be the

CAIRO, FROM BOULER.

ancient Memphis, so celebrated for its pyramids, the burial-place of the Egyptian monarchs. Alexandria, built by Alexander the Great, was long the seat and capital of the Ptolemais, but the greater part of it is now in ruins. It is still the chief port, and the residence of the consuls of different nations. Its most remarkable antiquities are two obelisks, commonly called Cleopatra's Needles, Pompey's Pillar, and the Tower of Pharos. Rosetta and Damietta are towns of considerable commerce. Suez was formerly a place of great trade, but its importance is now considerably increased in connection with the route to India. A railway from Alexandria passes through Suez. Near this city the children of Israel are supposed to have entered the Gulf where they crossed the Red Sea.

POMPEY'S PILLAR.

Until recently Egypt was entirely under the dominion of the Turkish sultan. The late Mohammed Ali threw off the Turkish yoke, and established Egypt as nominally an independent kingdom. The government, as it is now constituted, is much more rational than it was, but it is

still absolute in the strictest sense of the word. There is a pretended legislative assembly at Cairo, but it is a mere shadow. The pacha has a council of his great officers, whom he occasionally consults; and he governs according to certain forms and regulations; but still the spirit of despotism prevails. The religion of the inhabitants is chiefly Mohammedan, but all other creeds are tolerated.

BARBARY STATES.

SECTION III.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ETC.

THE States of Barbary comprise all the northern borders of Africa, extending from the Atlantic Ocean to Egypt; a tract of country about 2,000 miles in length, and 500 in breadth. The states are Morocco and Fez, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli.

Morocco.—This empire, which now includes that of Fez, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the east by the river Malva, on the south by Bled-el-Jerede, or the dry country, and on the west by the Atlantic Ocean. It is about 500 miles in length and 200 in breadth. Its surface is estimated at 274,000 square miles; and it is extremely diversified by mountains, hills, plains, and valleys. Its only considerable river is the Malva, which has a course of about 400 miles.

The climate of Morocco is not so hot as might be expected from the position of the country, arising from the circumstance that it is subject to the alternation of the sea, land, and mountain breezes. Its agricultural productions are similar to those of Egypt, which is a proof that its soil is in general fertile. The southern declivities of Mount Atlas are bare; but on the northern there are extensive forests, consisting of olive, carob, walnut, acacia, cedar, palms, rose, and cork trees. Among the minerals of Morocco are copper, lead, iron, and rock-salt.

The inhabitants of Morocco consist of three distinct races—Moors, Bedouin Arabs, and Berbers. Jews are

intermixed among all these nations; they are very numerous in the seaports and commercial towns.

The chief towns of Morocco are Morocco, the capital, Fez, and Mequinez. There are several populous towns also in the interior, as Teza and Alkassar. Morocco is the residence of the sultan, and is surrounded by a strong wall, with square turrets at every fifty paces. The walls are nearly six miles in circuit; but the area enclosed is not covered with buildings, there being several large gardens and open spaces. Fez is the most industrious and commercial town of the empire; and it contains upwards of 100 mosques, and seven public schools. Mequinez has also many factories, especially of leather. In each of these towns there is an imperial palace. Near the eastern entrance of the Straits of Gibraltar is the Spanish town of Ceuta; and near the western, the town of Tangier, where the European consuls generally reside.

The commerce of Morocco is chiefly carried on with the nations of Africa, by caravan; but European vessels visit its harbours, and export the produce of the empire to Italy, France, Spain, England, and Holland. The principal goods exported are wool, wax, hides of cattle and camels, gum arabic, copper, bitter and sweet almonds, goat-skins, oil, ivory, ostrich feathers, dates, corn, and some few manufactures, as scarfs of wool and silk, red or yellow Morocco leather slippers and shoes, black cloaks of Tarudant, and the shawls of Fez and Tefza.

The religion of Morocco is chiefly Mohammedan. Education is highly prized among the Moorish inhabitants. Children are sent to school at six years of age, and they frequently remain in the elementary schools until they know the whole of the Koran by heart, when they pass for further education into the higher schools, where they are instructed in grammar, theology, logic, rhetoric, poetry, geometry, astrology, and medicine.

The government is absolutely despotic; even more so than in the Turkish empire. The sovereigns of the country claim descent from Mohammed; and their proper

title is that of Sheref. Their subjects are much oppressed, and Christian and Jewish merchants are exposed to great losses by capricious ordinances. A considerable portion of territory has been obtained by Spain, in consequence of her recent invasion of the country.

Algiers.—Algiers lies between Morocco and Tunis. It formed part of the ancient Mauritania. It is about 500 miles in length, from east to west. Its boundaries are, on the south, Mount Atlas; and on the north, the Mediterranean. It is a fruitful country, bearing productions similar to those of Morocco. Many of the mountains of the country, which form part of the great chain of Mount Atlas, are almost perpetually covered with snow. The principal river of Algiers is the Shelliff, which has its sources in the borders of the Sahara, south of the Wannashrees mountains. The climate of the country north of the Atlas is generally healthy and temperate; but when the south wind blows, the heat is sometimes very oppressive.

The domestic animals of Algiers are horses, camels, merino sheep, oxen, goats, and mules. The interior abounds with wild boars, porcupines, antelopes, and all sorts of game: in the mountains are panthers, leopards, and lions. In the deserts of Angad are large flocks of ostriches. The country is infested by various reptiles and insects, especially scorpions of large size, whose bite is dangerous. Locusts pay the country occasional visits, and destroy the harvests of whole districts in a few days.

The races that inhabit the territories of Algiers are Berbers, Arabs, Moors, Turks, Jews, Cocoolis, and Negroes. One half of the population consists of Berbers, the aborigines of the land. It is from them that the name Barbary is derived.

The principal city of this country is Algiers, the capital, which is built on the declivity of a hill, the houses rising one above another, which gives the city a striking appearance when viewed from the sea. This city is memorable for its bombardment by Lord Exmouth, in

ARAB.

NEGRO.

1816, who was sent from England to chastise the Dey and his subjects, for their piratical habits. Besides Algiers, there are many small towns in this country—the melancholy remains of populous cities mentioned by ancient writers.

ALGIERS.

Algiers was till recently one of the most powerful kingdoms in Africa; but it is now in a great measure subjugated to the power of France, and may, therefore, be more properly termed at the present period a tributary to France, than an independent state. The city of Algiers is, indeed, governed by a commissioner delegated from the French government.

Tunis.—This country is situated between Algiers and Tripoli. It extends about 320 miles from north to south, and 150 from east to west. Anciently it was called Africa Propria, of which Carthage was the capital. The atmosphere of the country is generally pure and wholesome, and the soil is very fertile. All sorts of grain, except oats, are grown; and every kind of European vegetable is easily raised. Among fruits the first is the produce of the palm, or date tree; and, with the exception of the hazel nut, filbert, strawberry, raspberry, and currant, the country possesses every species of European fruit, besides those of warm climates. Formerly the Tunisines were celebrated for their breed of horses, but they are now entirely neglected. Game and poultry are very abundant. An extensive fishery is carried on by the Sicilians on some of the coasts; and the Genoese, Neapolitans, and sometimes the French, fish for coral on the northern coast, near Tabarca. The mountains of Tunis are said to contain several valuable mines of silver, copper, and lead; but they are not worked.

The Tunisines are in general the same races as the Algerines. They are more civilized than those of the other nations of Barbary; it being the seat of refuge to which the Moors fled who were driven out of Spain, some of whose manufactures have thriven among them. They are, however, as a body, very ignorant; their best instructed men have only a knowledge of reading, writing, and arithmetic, just enough to manage the affairs of commerce. The women are remarkable for their beauty, and would be reckoned handsome in any part of the world.

The only city existing which requires notice is Tunis, the capital. This city is of considerable extent, and is one of the first cities in Africa. Its population is about 130,000. It has a good harbour, with excellent fortifications. The citadel is of vast extent, but in a ruinous condition. It was commenced by the Emperor Charles V. and finished by Don John, of Austria. Near Tunis are the ruins of Carthage, which contested the empire of the world with Rome.

The religion of the Tunisines is Mohammedan. They are governed by a bey, whose power is so rooted among them by the annual excursions of his troops through the country, that his firman or mandate never meets with a direct opposition. The Berbers and Arabs, however, who live in that part of the country situated on the frontiers of Algiers, acknowledge no obedience to either government; when they have committed a crime, they pass from one country to the other, and are safe from punishment. The government of Tunis is essentially despotic.

Tripoli.—Tripoli extends from the confines of Tunis to the desert of Barca. It is a very extensive country, but full of barren districts. In some parts, however, the soil is rich, but in general badly cultivated. Its chief productions are corn, grapes, olives, dates, and various other fruits natural to warm climates. There are a few plants indigenous to the country, especially in the desert. The animals and birds are similar to those of Algiers and Tunis, but the horses are of a much finer breed. Its chief minerals are salt and sulphur.

The population of the country of Tripoli consists of Arabs and Jews; in the towns, Moors, Jews, Turks, Mamelukes, Christians, Arabs, and Negro slaves. The Arabs are the bulk of the people, and they are of the same stock as the Bedouins of Arabia. Some of them lead a nomadic life, while others are residents in towns and villages. They are divided into numerous tribes; each tribe, or even set of tents, being governed by a sheikh, who being an old man, or a young man appointed by government, is looked up to as a superior, though his chief business is to collect the money which is paid to government.

The chief city of Tripoli, is Tripoli, the capital; which, though greatly declined from its ancient opulence and splendour, is still a large and somewhat populous city. It is built on the side of the ancient Oea, which, with the cities of Leptis Magna and Sabrata, formed the province called Tripolis under the Roman emperors. Tripoli is the residence of the Basha. It contains six mosques of the

first order, with a number of tall minarets, besides many smaller mosques. The Jews have their synagogues; and Roman Catholics enjoy the free exercise of their religion, a convent of Franciscan friars, with endowments in the country, being under the protection of the Roman Catholic powers. Tripoli is noted for two extensive bazaars; one containing the shops of traders, the other appropriated to slave dealing. It is also noted for its caravanseras, which receive the merchants and their goods from distant parts; and from its baths, which make a considerable show by their picturesque clusters of cupolas.

Tripoli is dependent on Constantinople; and its bashalic, like the other Barbary states, is a sordid despotism. Whether ruled by a Turkish or Moorish chief, it is held for the sole purpose of exacting a revenue. A considerable sum was formerly drawn from the plunder of her corsairs; but the humane interference of Great Britain in 1815 and 1816, has had the effect of abolishing the piracy for which Tripoli had been so long notorious.

Barca.—This country is situated between Egypt and Tripoli. It includes the hilly region of Cyrenaica; and is entirely inhabited by nomadic Arabs, who are under the control of an Arab sheikh. The country is for the most part sterile, for want of water; and it is strongly characterized by the name given to it by its Arabian inhabitants, namely, "The Desert of Whirlwinds." Its coast was once greatly famed for its threefold crops; but it is now, from want of cultivation, barren as the desert interior. Adjoining to Barca are the two beylics of Bengazi and Derna; the beys of which are appointed by and dependent on the pasha of Tripoli. The sheikh who rules the Arab tribes of Barca is subordinate to these beys. Adjacent to Barca is another district, called Sert or Sort, which is under an Arab sheikh, who is tributary to the pasha of Tripoli. It was in the desert of Barca that the renowned temple of Jupiter Ammon stood, on an insulated spot of fertility, in the midst of a wild waste. The only two places deserving the names of towns in this whole country are Bengazi and Derna. It formerly

contained the celebrated towns of Arsinoe, Ptolemais, Berenice, Apollonia, and Cyrene; but these cities are now in ruins and deserted, though in some of them the wandering tribes of Arabs take refuge from the summer heats.

Bled el Jeride.—This country formed part of the ancient Numidia. It is situated south of Algiers and Tunis, and is frequently called "the country of dates," with which the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade. Part of the country was the ancient Getulia, described by Roman writers; but little is known of the district at the present day.

EASTERN AFRICA.

SECTION IV.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ETC.

Eastern Africa comprises Nubia, Abyssinia, Adel, Ajan Zanguebar, Mozambique, Mocaranga, and Sofala.

Nubia.—The boundaries of this country are uncertain. The term Nubia is often used to designate a vast extent of country stretching along the banks of the Nile, from the southern borders of Egypt to the frontiers of Abyssinia and Senaar; but the natives apply the term Nouba to a comparatively small tract lying between Derr and the borders of Dongola. Nubia, however, may be considered as that country which the ancients call Ethiopia, and which answers to the extensive country so named by geographers. A considerable part of this country is desert, but on the borders of the Nile and Egypt are some fertile and populous districts, which compose the two states of Dongola and Senaar. Of these states very little is known. That of Dongola is said to be populous; its capital, bearing the same name, containing about 50,000 inhabitants. Senaar is said to occupy the space assigned by the ancients to the once famous empire of Meroe, the origin of which is lost in the darkness of antiquity. Its capital bears the same name, and is supposed to contain about 100,000 inhabitants. It is a commercial city, and sends caravans to Egypt, Nigritia, and the port of Jidda, in Arabia. There are other smaller states in the country called Nubia,

of which very little is known. The most important of these is that of Shendy, whose malek, or chief, was conquered by the Turks, in 1820. Halfaz, which lies to the south of Shendy, is a less important state. Nubia abounds in elephants, camels, horses, and lions, and every other species of animal, wild and tame, which is found in the neighbouring countries. Crocodiles are numerous in the Nile about Shendy, and are much dreaded.

Abyssinia.—Abyssinia is a very extensive country, situated between Nubia on the North, and Adel on the south. It is, for the most part, a very elevated and mountainous country, which renders the temperature in many districts much cooler than that of Egypt and Nubia. The most remarkable characteristics of the country are the hill forts, which often rise with steep and almost inaccessible sides, except by a few paths. On the top they sometimes display a level surface of considerable extent. The country is also remarkable for prodigious cataracts, some of which have cascades more than 100 feet high. Abyssinia, indeed, is a very interesting country, but it has never been well explored, so that it is but imperfectly known.

The vegetable productions of Abyssinia are not well known. Among them, however, may be mentioned the elegant daroo tree, the grape, and the lemon, orange, citron, and caper trees. The jessamine, both orange, white, and yellow, and a honeysuckle resembling that of England, are plentiful in some parts of the country.

The animals of Abyssinia present many varieties: those peculiar to these regions are the two-horned rhinoceros, elephant, hyæna, the large-horned ox, and the camel, boar, buffalo, and giraffe.

GIRAFFE.

The capital of Abyssinia is

Gondar, which is the residence of the negus, or emperor. It owes much of its present importance to the churches and royal castles erected by the Portuguese. According to the report of a native it equals Grand Cairo in extent and population.

The Abyssinians are superior to most African nations, as will appear from the following list of articles manufactured among them; namely, carpets, parchment, hides, saddles, and iron and brass articles.

The Abyssinians form a nation with a physical character that distinguishes them from other nations. They are in general well made, and sometimes handsome, with features completely Roman. The country contains some people of a different stock, such as the Christian Agows, who live along the east bank of the Tacazze, from Lasta to the confines of Shiré. These people were once Nile-worshippers, and were converted to the Christian religion in the seventh century.

The Abyssinians are professedly Christians; the Christian faith having been introduced into that country, according to "the Chronicle of the Abyssinian Kings," in the time of Constantine. Within the last few years, Protestant Christianity has made much progress in this country, owing chiefly to the exertions of the Bishop of Jerusalem. The king is the head of the Church, and may marry as many wives as he pleases. The clergy, who are not monks, may marry once; but a second marriage renders them unworthy of their sacred office. The government of Abyssinia is monarchical and despotic: the crown is hereditary.

Adel.—Adel is a small kingdom to the south of Abyssinia. It consists chiefly of sandy deserts; and is inhabited by scattered Arabian tribes. The coast is barren, but the northern country is productive. Its chief productions are wheat, millet, frankincense, and pepper. The chief town is Zeila; but Magadasho, in the southern parts of the country, is a place of considerable trade. Little is known of the inhabitants: their religion is Mohammedanism.

Ajan.—Ajan is a name by which an almost unknown tract of the coast of East Africa is designated. It extends from near Magadoza, northwards, to Cape Guardafui, which is estimated at about ten degrees of the equator. But the extent of the coast of Ajan cannot be accurately defined, as the name itself is very indefinite.

Zanguebar.—According to the Arabian account this country is very extensive, but very marshy and unhealthy. It is inhabited by the Mocuas, who are partly Pagans and partly Mohammedans. Its inhabitants live without law, and without any definite form of religion. Every one worships the object of his fancy, as an animal or a plant; but all acknowledge a Supreme Being. The king is styled the "Son of the Supreme Lord."

Mozambique.—This country lies to the south of Zanguebar. It is very extensive, and for the most part fertile; and it possesses rich mines of gold. There are numerous flocks of sheep, and herds of cattle and deer, in the country; but it is greatly infested with wild boars and carnivorous animals. Mozambique is under the dominion of the Portuguese. Its chief town, bearing the same name, is on an island near the coast; and though it is greatly reduced in population and extent, it still carries on an extensive trade in slaves.

Mocaranga.—This country is bounded on the east by Mozambique, and on the south by the kingdom of Sofala. It is the most powerful and civilized kingdom in this part of Africa: its inhabitants are negroes. The climate is temperate, and the soil very fertile; the country is said to possess some excellent mines of gold and silver. Elephants and ostriches abound in Mocaranga.

Sofala.—This kingdom is bounded on the north and west by Mocaranga. Those parts of it which border on the ocean are very rich and fertile; but the surrounding country is wild, and very thinly inhabited. Vast herds of elephants traverse the wilds of Sofala, the ivory from which forms the chief article of commerce among the natives. The country was formerly a place of great

commercial importance, but it is now much reduced. The kingdom is tributary to the Portuguese. It produces such quantities of gold, that some writers have supposed Sofala to have been the Ophir of Scripture, from whence King Solomon received the gold with which he adorned the Temple of Jerusalem.

There are other small kingdoms in Eastern Africa, as Melinda, on the coast of Zanguebar; and Quiloa, which lies between Mozambique and Zanguebar; both of which are dependent on the Portuguese.

WESTERN AFRICA.

SECTION V.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ETC.

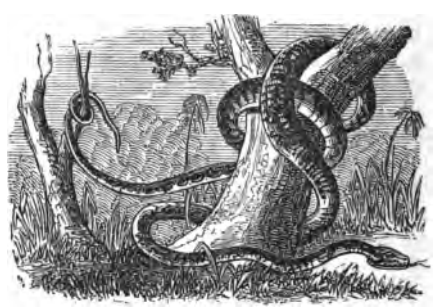
Western Africa comprises a large portion of the Sahara, or Great Desert, to the southward of Morocco; Senegambia, or the numerous negro states in the vicinity of the rivers Senegal and Gambia; the Mandingo, and other countries eastward of Sierra-Leon; and Guinea.

The Sahara, or Great Desert, in Western Africa, is occupied by numerous tribes of Arabs, who subsist upon the oases, or insulated spots of verdure, which it contains. Beyond the Sahara are several countries which have been explored by Mungo Park; and which are divided into many small kingdoms, of which comparatively little is known. The most eastern of these states is Timbuctu, whose inhabitants are partly Negro, and partly Arab. In many parts of these countries the Mohammedan religion is professed; in others, Paganism still prevails.

That part of Western Africa, called Senegambia, comprehends a lower and a higher country. The lower country lies along the shores of the sea; and the higher extends over the interior. It contains several mountains; and beside the Senegal and Gambia rivers, which give name to the country, there are two others which are navigated to a considerable distance from their mouths, namely, the Rio Grande and the Nunez.

Senegambia, on the whole, possesses a healthy climate, and its soil is capable of producing all kinds of tropical vegetable products. The grains, which are cultivated to a great extent, are rice, maize, and millet; ground nut, mandive, yams, and bananas, are also cultivated for food. The most common vegetable products are red pepper, pumpkins, water melons, gourds, sorrel, onions, beans, and ginger. Several varieties of fruit trees are cultivated; and the forests contain several, as the butter tree, the fruits of which are used as food. Other forest trees are used as timber, dyes, or cabinet work; and several articles of commerce, as gum and caoutchouc, are collected in the woods.

The domestic animals of Senegambia do not differ from those of Europe, except that a few camels are kept in the Sahara and the adjacent countries. Among the wild animals, the elephant takes the first place; the hippopotamus is numerous in all the rivers except the Senegal; and there are lions, leopards, wild boars, panthers, antelopes, hares, porcupines, and several kinds of monkeys. Alligators frequent all the rivers, and the boa constrictor is



BOA CONSTRICTOR.

found in the lower marshy country. The birds of Senegambia are various; among which the white heron is the most beautiful. Bees are more common here than in any

part of the globe: honey is a considerable article of inland trade, and bees-wax is exported. Iron abounds in the mountains, and gold is found in those parts which lie between the affluents of the Upper Senegal.

The inhabitants of Senegambia belong properly to the negro race; but a large number of Moors are intermixed with the most populous tribes. These tribes are known under the names of Foulahs, Jaloofs, Mandingoes, and Serrawollies; and they occupy the more elevated part of the country, leaving to the minor tribes only the low country, which extends along the sea from the mouth of the Gambia to Cape Verga. Among the minor tribes are the Sousous, Feloops, Papels, Balantes, Landamas, Naloos, and Bagoes. Those nations among which the Moors have settled have partly embraced the Mohammedan religion; the rest are Pagans. The smaller tribes appear to be under very little authority, but rather resemble the savage tribes of America. The larger tribes have established regular governments; in most of which there is a resemblance to the government which formerly existed in Poland; the administration of the country being in the hands of the king and an hereditary nobility.

There are three European settlements in Senegambia; those of the English, on the Gambia; the French, on the Senegal; and the Portuguese, on the Rio Grande. These settlements differ materially from those in other parts of the world; inasmuch as they are strictly commercial. The settlers have not acquired the property of any land, except the place on which they have settled; their chief object being the procuring those productions of the country which are valued in Europe for the purposes of trade.

Guinea is an extensive country in the western portion of Africa, having a coast line of more than 1,800 miles. The countries along this coast are known to European sailors under six names—Sierra-Leon, Grain Coast, Ivory Coast, Gold Coast, Slave Coast, and Benin. The interior of the country is almost unknown, except that portion occupied by the Ashantes, and the countries lying along

the route by which Captain Clapperton entered the interior of Africa.

Guinea contains five kingdoms: namely, Ashantee, Dahomey, Benin, Waree, and Biafra.

Ashantee is an extensive kingdom, comprising a great portion of the interior of the Gold Coast. It is very rich and fertile, abounding in all the corn and fruits common to the climate. Its capital is Comassie, the residence of the Ashantee monarch, who rules his subjects with true oriental despotism.

Dahomey is the principal kingdom of Western Africa, the kingdoms of Whidah and Ardrah having been annexed to it in 1727. Its inhabitants are a ferocious race of people; and the king is represented as surpassing the usual measure of savage monsters. Its capital is Abhomey.

Benin is an extensive kingdom to the east of Dahomey, but its limits are unknown. The same may be said of Waree and Biafra, these countries not having been definitely explored by Europeans. Between Benin and the equator, the country of Guinea is divided and governed by numerous chiefs, but little is known concerning them except that they allow the export of their principal commodities; namely, palm oil, ivory, pod-pepper, and redwood, in exchange for European manufactures. In the tract south of the line lie in succession the territories of Loango, Caconda, Congo, Angola, and Benguela; the three latter of which are under the dominion of the Portuguese, and have a coast of nearly 600 miles. The trade of the whole of these territories is monopolised by the Portuguese. Their boundaries towards the interior are altogether unknown. The climate is very hot, but the soil is fertile, producing sugar-canes, cassia, tobacco, and palm, cotton, and pimento trees, in great abundance. The principal towns in these territories are Rosali, in Loango; St. Paulo de Loando, in Angola; St. Salvador, in Congo; and St. Philip de Benguela, in Benguela.

SOUTHERN AFRICA.

SECTION VI.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ETC.

SOUTHERN Africa comprises Caffraria, the country of the Bichuanas and Hottentots, and the Cape Colony.

Caffraria, or Caffreland, is a country of great extent, between the eastern boundary of the territory of the Cape of Good Hope and the southern boundary of Sofala. Caffraria, properly so called, extends for about 600 miles along the coast (this part is now called Natal), from the Great Key River to Dalagoa Bay, and inland as far as the high land which divides the waters that flow into the Indian Ocean from those which flow into the Orange River and the Atlantic, and separates the land of the Caffres from that of the Hottentots, the Bosjesmans, and the Bichuana tribes. It is a land of rugged hills and deep valleys, ravines, and flowing streams. Caffre villages are scattered about, and numerous herds of cattle graze in the plains; while the lower sides of the hills exhibit patches of cultivated ground in all kinds of irregular shapes. Bush and forests cover the declivities of some of the hills, while others are bare and red, from the iron ore which they contain.

Among the agricultural productions of Caffraria are millet, beans, pumpkins, sweet potatoes, yams, maize, and tobacco. The country abounds in game, antelopes, hares, pheasants, and partridges. Its chief wild animals are the lion, leopard, elephant, hyæna, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, baboons, and monkeys. Copper and iron ore are found in the mountains.

Four principal nations occupy Caffraria: namely, the Amakosa, the Amatimba, the Amaponda, and the Zoolahs. These nations were originally of one stock, but they are now separate nations, governed by separate chiefs. The government of the Caffres is a sort of clanship system. The population of each tribe is divided into kraals, or hamlets, containing from ten to twenty families, each

family occupying a separate hut. In each kraal there is a petty chief, who exercises a kind of patriarchal authority over the people. A higher chief rules over a district comprising several kraals; and all these chiefs, to a certain extent, acknowledge the authority of the umkumkani, or great chief of the whole tribe. These lesser chiefs are, indeed, the counsellors of the umkumkani; and he cannot determine upon any important measure concerning the whole tribe without their consent. They have no written laws, but certain long-established principles and usages, any infraction of which by a chief would be opposed by his subjects. There is, however, a disposition on the part of the chiefs to make themselves absolute; and when they wish to control their subjects they have recourse to the amakira, or witch-doctor, who can readily frighten them into submission. The Caffres acknowledge the existence of a Supreme Being; but they have no form of worship, nor have they any idols. They believe in witch-craft, spirits, and apparitions; and they sacrifice animals to propitiate the ghosts of the dead. Many of them have been converted to Christianity. The Caffres are a tall, active, and robust people; much of their time is spent in hunting; the land is cultivated by the women.

CAFFRE.

The country of the Hottentots extends the whole length of the north boundary of Cape Colony, and is about 200 miles in length. It is peopled by different tribes, or nations, who, like the Arabs, migrate from one part of the country to another, to find pasturage for their flocks. Among these tribes are the Bosjesmans, the Griquas, or bastard Hottentots, and the Koranna Hottentots, the latter of which is one of the few Hottentot tribes that retain their independence. In intellect and civilization, the Hottentot race rank among the lowest of mankind: they are even

lower than the Caffres. They are, however, a good-natured, and, on the whole, a good-looking race, having many of them fine-formed heads and prominent features. They live in kraals, and their huts are constructed of mats, stretched over a frame of sticks, in the form of a bee-hive; and are easily removed on their pack-oxen, as they migrate from place to place. By the agency of missionaries many have been brought to embrace the Christian religion, and they have consequently become somewhat civilized.

The Bichuanas, or Betjuana tribes, inhabit the interior of Southern Africa, north of the Great Orange River. Their country is well cultivated, with gardens and grain lands, and it is generally productive. They are a somewhat civilized people, not only possessing an idea of a Supreme Being, but having a distinct notion of his attributes. They are Caffres, and resemble the southern Caffres, or the Amakosa and Amatimba tribes, who border on the Colony of the Cape. Like the other Caffres, they practised circumcision, were polygamists, and had no form of worship. The Betjuana tribe, best known to Europeans, is that of the Machappee, whose chief town, Lattakoo, is described by travellers as containing about 1,500 houses and about 8,000 inhabitants. Their houses are a species of circular hut, divided into several apartments, and situated in the middle of a court, enclosed all round by a circular fence made of straight twigs and small branches carefully interwoven. Another interesting tribe among this race is that of the Moorootsee, whose capital is Kurrechane. These people cultivate tobacco and the sugar-cane; paint their houses; smelt and alloy copper, of which they make wire and chains; fabricate wooden bowls and spoons, with other articles; and build walls of masonry,—which indicate a considerable advance in the arts of civilization. They are still progressing under the self-denying labours of the missionaries.

Each tribe of the Betjuana is under the rule of an hereditary king, or chief. In cases of emergency these chiefs assemble with their warriors to consult on what

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

steps shall be taken for the general safety. These assemblies are called Peetsho.

The Cape of Good Hope is one of the most southern points of Africa. That part of it which is called Cape Colony, and which is in the possession of, and colonised by, the English, stretches to the eastward of Capetown, as far as the Caffre frontier, which has recently been fixed at the Great Key River. This colony is in a very flourishing condition. Cultivation is carried on to a great extent, though there are still many millions of acres ungranted to the colonists, exclusive of the ceded territory, in which there are native settlers. Many towns have been erected, the chief of which is Capetown, which contains many public buildings, including several places of religious worship. The colony is governed by a governor sent from England; his administration being controlled by the colonial minister at home.

THE AFRICAN ISLANDS.

SECTION VII.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ETC.

THE principal African islands are Madagascar, Bourbon,

and Mauritius; the Madeiras, the Canaries, the Cape Verde Islands, St. Helena, the Comora Isles, and Socotra, with others of less importance.

SUGAR-CANE.

The island of Madagascar is situated in the Indian Sea, about 240 miles from Mozambique, on the eastern shores of Africa. It is separated from the continent of Africa by the channel of Mozambique, and contains an area of about 225,000 square miles. It contains a large proportion of fertile soil, and will produce every kind of grain. A range of mountains extends from north to south, some of which are not less than 10,000 feet high. Its chief productions are rice, the cassava-root, Indian corn, the sugar-cane, sweet potatoes, tobacco, and several species of spice. On the shores, the cocoa-nut tree and the mangrove abound: and there are several indigenous plants, which are used for food, as the eatable arum, or bread-fruit, arrow-root, and several varieties of plaintain. Only cattle, sheep, fowls, ducks, and geese, are kept in Madagascar, but wild swine are numerous; and on the western coast some wild cattle are found. The climate of Madagascar is more temperate than might be expected from its geographical position; and the year is divided between wet and dry seasons.

BREAD-FRUIT.

The population of Madagascar is about 5,000,000, and the inhabitants appear to belong to different races which have mixed together, and speak only one language. It is said to be divided into twenty-two states, governed by kings. Many of the inhabitants are Mohammedans; the rest are Pagans. The French have several small settlements on this island, and in these establishments they cultivate sugar, coffee, and other tropical productions, which are sent to the island of Bourbon.

Bourbon is situated in the Indian Ocean, to the east of Madagascar. It consists of two systems of volcanic mountains and rocks, and a kind of plain between them. Its soil is arid, but vegetation is promoted by the moisture supplied by a regular succession of land and sea breezes. The interior of the island is not inhabited, and the cultivated ground extends in no place more than about six miles from the sea. Within these limits are cultivated maize, rice, corn, mandioca, sweet potatoes, haricots, the sugar-cane, cocoa, coffee, and several kinds of fruits, as citrons, tamarinds, oranges, and lemons.

The inhabitants are composed of a few European families, and a great number of half-Europeans, or such as have mixed with the African races. The bulk of the population is of the Negro race, some of whom are free, but a greater number of whom are slaves. The island has a commercial intercourse with France, and with the ports along the east shores of Africa. Its exports are sugar, coffee, coooa, cloves, nutmegs, and timber.

The island of Mauritius is situated in the Indian Ocean, and it contains an area of about 700 square miles. It is in the possession of England, and its population amounts to about 300,000. The chief agricultural production of the island is the sugar-cane: its other productions are sago, cocoa-nuts, tamarinds, mangroves, yams, Indian corn, plantains, melons, bananas, wheat, rice, and several European vegetables, and tropical fruits.

The Madeiras are situated in the Atlantic Ocean, about 400 miles from the north-western coast of Africa. These

islands are one mass of basalt, rising with a steep ascent from the south, and from the north towards the interior. The climate is mild and healthy, though the islands sometimes suffer from hurricanes. They are in the possession of Portugal, and the population is estimated at 100,000, who are descendants of the Portuguese, but with a considerable mixture of African blood. The productions are the fruits and grains of Europe, especially the vine, as well as many tropical plants. The extensive vineyards of the Madeiras furnish the most important article of exportation. Near the Madeiras lie the small island of Porto Santo, which is also a basalt rock, about 500 feet in height. Indian corn and vegetables are cultivated here for consumption, and a little wine for exportation.

The Canaries are a group of islands in the North Atlantic Ocean, lying off the coast of Africa, the principal of which are—Canary, Teneriffe, Palma, Ferro, Gomera, Fuertaventura, and Lanzarote. These islands are all of volcanic formation, and in parts exceedingly fertile. They produce grain and fruits, both tropical and European, in abundance, and the vine is largely cultivated; and in most of the islands wine is made, which is known in Europe under the name of Teneriffe. Sugar is also made; and there are manufactures of coarse linens, cloths, and silks. The islands belong to Spain, and their inhabitants may now be considered Spaniards; the aborigines, called Guanches, having intermarried with their conquerors so freely as to make them one people. Each island has its governor, but the whole group is under a governor-general, who resides at Teneriffe.

The Cape Verde Islands are a group of islands about 300 miles from the western shores of Africa. The group consists of fourteen islands, nine of which are inhabited. The largest island is St. Jago, which has an area of about 700 square miles. The whole belong to Portugal, and the inhabitants, who amount to about 200,000, are mostly negroes, mixed with some mulattoes, the descendants of Portuguese settlers. Indian corn and rice are the principal

objects of agriculture in these islands, but all the fruits of the south of Europe and Western Africa grow abundantly. Melons and grapes come to great perfection, and sugar and cotton are cultivated. Each of the islands is under a separate governor.

The island of St. Helena is situated in the Atlantic Ocean, 1,200 miles west of the coast of Benguela, in South Africa. It is surrounded by rugged and almost perpendicular cliffs, from 600 to 1,200 feet high, which are broken through in several places by deep chasms opening to the sea-shore, and which form so many narrow valleys winding up to the tableland in the centre of the island. Viewed from the sea, the island appears barren; but the interior is covered with a rich verdure, and is watered by abundant springs. It produces all the fruits and flowers of Europe and Asia; and horned cattle, sheep, and goats, feed on its rich pastures. It is in the possession of the English, who make it a resting-place for their ships between India and Europe. It was to this island that Napoleon was banished after his overthrow at Waterloo; and here he died, after spending nearly six years in exile.

The Cormora Islands form a considerable cluster in the channel of Mozambique. The chief island is Joanna, which affords plenty of provisions, and produces every species of fruit common to the torrid zone. It is common for the East India ships, bound for Bombay, to put in here for refreshments. The inhabitants are Negroes, and they profess the Mohammedan faith.

Socotra, an island in the Indian Ocean, situated about 200 miles from the most eastern point of Africa, consists of an elevated table-land, and two plains, which lie north and south of the table-land. It contains many fertile spots; and its chief productions are aloes, grain, cotton, indigo, fruits, and vegetables. In the valleys there are extensive groves of date-trees. Its principal commercial products are derived from the wild plants, and are the aloe and dragon's-blood. These two plants are very

abundant, both growing on the hills at an elevation of from 500 to 2,000 feet. The island possesses many domestic animals. Turtles are found on the southern coast, and fish are abundant. The population consists of two different nations, Socotran Arabs and Bedouins. These nations are divided into families or tribes, each occupying a determinate part of the island, and having a chief, who exercises a kind of patriarchial authority over them. They are Mohammedans, but they are not very zealous in the performance of their religious duties.

In the Gulf of Guinea are the islands of Fernando Po, Prince's Island, St. Thomas's, and Anno-bon. The three latter are in the possession of the Portuguese. Fernando Po belongs to Spain. There is a British settlement on the north side of this island, named Clarence, which abounds in tropical productions.

Book the Sixth.

CHAPTER I.

AMERICA.

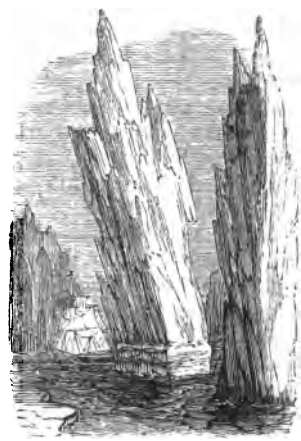
PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

AMERICA is the most extended of the five great divisions of the globe. It is surrounded on all sides by the ocean; and is divided into two parts, called North and South America, which are connected by the narrow isthmus of Darien, or Panama. Between North and South America are two vast gulfs, called the Colombian, or Caribean Sea, and the Gulf of Mexico, which are studded with numerous islands, and are bounded on the south and west by the continental coasts.

POLAR BEAR.

The form of North America resembles a triangle, with the vertex terminating at the isthmus of Panama, and the base

determined by the shores of the Frozen Ocean. Its coast, measured from Hudson's Straits to Florida Channel, is about 4,800 miles; and from the Florida Channel, along the inland sea, to Panama, about 4,500. The whole length on the Pacific side to Behring's Straits is estimated at 10,500 miles. The area of North America is somewhat greater than that of South America.



ICEBERGS.

The coast of North America is indented by seas and inlets. Thus, on the east side, proceeding from north to south, there are Baffin's Bay and Hudson's Bay; the latter being a kind of inland sea larger than the Baltic. Davis's Straits and Baffin's Bay, with the Icy Ocean, may be considered as separating Greenland and the Polar lands from the American continent.

The chief mountains of North America are the Rocky or Stony Mountains, which extend from north to south, not less than 2,400 miles; the Appalachian Mountains, which stretch from about the 34° of latitude northwards, to the banks of the St. Lawrence, a distance of about 1,200 miles; and a continuation of the Stony Mountains, which pervades the Mexican States, and stretching through Guatemala, connect themselves with the mighty Andes of South America.

The Andes of South America present the longest unbroken range of lofty summits on the globe. Its highest mountains are in Columbia. Among the chief of them is Chomborozo, whose height is estimated at 24,500 feet above the level of the sea. Although in the torrid zone, this mountain is covered with snow at 2,400 feet from its summit. The highest is Sorata, 25,500 feet high.

America is celebrated for its magnificent rivers. The chief rivers of North America are the Oregon, the St. Lawrence, the Rio Colorada, the Missouri, the Mississippi, the Arkansas, the Red River, and the Ohio. Those of South America are the Amazon, the Orinoco, the Rio Grande, the San Francisco, the Parana, Paraguay, and La Plata. All these are mighty rivers; the largest being the Amazon, which after a winding course of 5,400 miles, and receiving more than 300 tributaries, many of which are larger than the Danube, falls into the Atlantic Ocean, near the equinoctial line.

North America is also celebrated for its numerous and extensive lakes; the most remarkable of which are partly situated in the United States, and partly in Canada. The principal are Lakes Winipeg, Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario; the five last of which form the natural boundary between Canada and the United States. The South American lakes are not numerous; and being in many instances caused by the overflowing of its great rivers, they appear in the rainy season, and are dry in summer. Salt lakes and salt streams are occasionally found in South America.

The general nature of the climate of North America may be seen by what is known of the Canadas and the United States. The north-west territory, east of the Rocky Mountains, is a cold and inhospitable region, not adapted for agriculture; and on the eastern part, agriculture has not much advanced further than the latitude of 51° or 52°. The climate of South America naturally varies with the extent of latitude which the continent traverses. It is, indeed, of much greater variety than that of Africa; for, towards its southern extremity, the cold in winter is so intense as to render it almost unfit for habitation. On the eastern parts the winter months are often very cold, whilst in summer the heat is excessive.

It is a singular fact, that whilst the mountains, rivers, and lakes of America are the most magnificent on the globe, its animals are in general inferior to those of the Old World.

Those of North America resemble those found in the continents of Asia and Europe. There does not, indeed, exist a single natural genus north of the fortieth parallel in one continent, which does not equally exist in the other two. This is not the case, however, in South America. That portion of this vast continent contains an animal population in a great measure peculiar, and offers a large variety of forms and characters, to which we find no corresponding types among the productions of any other country.

Very few domestic animals existed in America at the time of its discovery by Columbus. The horse, ass, hog, sheep, ox, and goat, were all strangers to the New World, and were introduced by the early European colonists. The few domestic animals which existed in America previous to the arrival of Columbus, were found in Mexico and Peru; and these were only the lama, pacos, and a small species of lap-dog, called "abo." Since the planting of the European colonies, and the introduction of the arts and agriculture of civilized life, the domestic animals of the Old World have greatly increased in America. In many places they have even regained their original state of savage freedom: herds of wild oxen are found in Brazil, Buenos Ayres, and Colombia; and troops of wild horses are met with in both portions of this vast continent.

Of wild indigenous animals America contains a prodigious variety, many of which, as before stated, are altogether peculiar to that part of the globe. Thus the monkey tribes of America are so entirely different from those of the Old World, that they not only belong to different species, but even to different genera. The great majority of its carnivorous animals, also, of which it contains no fewer than 140 species, are altogether peculiar to this continent. In a word, every order of animal in America contains species not to be met with in any other quarter of the globe.

The ornithology of America is very rich. Rapacious birds are here as numerous as in other parts of the earth,

and of a great many different species, as well as of vultures, hawks, owls, and eagles. The condor of the Andes is the largest bird of prey known. America possesses upwards of 200 different species of the humming-bird, varying from the size of a common sparrow to that of a humble-bee. Its forests, also, swarm with pigeons, maccaws, parrots, parroquets, and the singular and beautiful genera of toucans. Of gallinaceous birds, it likewise contains an abundant supply, though of a family essentially different from that which inhabits the woods of India and China, which have supplied us with the common fowl, peacock, and pheasant. Among other genera peculiar to America, are the agami, or trumpet bird, the cariama, the jabiru, the jacauas, and the kamichi. The scarlet ibis and the American flamingo are characterised by the uniform deep scarlet colour of their plumage.

The reptiles of America are very numerous, including the alligator, rattle-snake, and many species, which, like its beasts and birds, are peculiar to this continent. The species and varieties of fish are likewise very numerous; but generally they have their representatives in the rivers and seas of Europe. Of the insect tribes, the most remarkable are the mosquitoes, chigoes, ants, and termites, all of which are very troublesome in their operations.

The vegetable productions of America are very various and numerous. In the extreme north and south its trees are for the most part stunted; but when the tropics are entered, a glorious vegetation appears. The forests are clothed with perpetual verdure: every tree has a character of its own, each has its peculiar foliage, and probably also a tint unlike that of the trees which surround it. Many of these productions will be noticed in the description of the different countries of this great continent.

The native Americans constitute at the present day, by their physical characters, and by their languages, a race different from those known before the discovery of America. They are in general of a robust frame, and a well-proportioned figure. Their complexion is of a reddish copper hue

and their hair is black, long, coarse, and shining, but not thickly set on the head. Their forehead is low, their eyes lengthened out, their eyebrows high, their cheek-bones prominent, their nose a little flattened, their lips extended, and their teeth closely set and pointed. Their head is of a square shape, their face is broad, and their features viewed in profile are prominent and deeply sculptured. They have a high chest, massy thighs, arched legs, and large feet. Such are the general characteristics of all the nations of

ESQUIMAUX.

America; except the Esquimaux, who are below the middle stature; and the Abipones and Patagonians, who exceed the ordinary height.

The chief countries of America are Canada, the United States, or Fredonia, Mexico, Guatemala, Colombia, Peru, Bolivia, La Plata, Monte-Video, Brazil, Guyana, and Patagonia. The chief islands are the Bahamas and Passage Islands, Cuba, Jamaica, Hayti, Porto Rico, and the Virgin and Caribee Islands.

CHAPTER II.—CANADA.

SECTION I.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ETC.

CANADA, divided into Lower and Upper Canada, is the most important British settlement on the continent of North America. Its average breadth from south to north is about 300 miles; and its length, from Lake Superior to the Island of Anticosti, about 1,000. Its area is about 400,000 square miles, nearly three times the surface of the British Island. Nearly the whole of this surface is situated within the basin of the St. Lawrence River.

A great portion of this area consists of mountains, forests, lakes, and rivers. A still large portion, however, is composed of table-land, plains, and valleys. There are also extensive marshes and forests. The more inhabited parts of Canada lie between 42° and 48° N. lat.; but the climate resembles that of the north of Germany and the centre of Russia. The greatest part of the country is covered with snow several months in the year; but the heat in summer is very great. Thunder storms are very frequent, and often cause great damage. Fogs are almost unknown.

The grains cultivated in Canada are wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, oats, and buckwheat. All English vegetables may be raised. Among its fruits are apples, pears, peaches, nectarines, and grapes. In many districts, hemp, flax, and tobacco are cultivated. The forests of Canada produce large quantities of timber: sugar is made from the maple tree, and spruce beer from the spruce fir.

The minerals of Canada are iron, lead, copper, salt, sulphur, and silver ore.

The domestic animals are horses, cattle, sheep, and swine. Among the wild animals may be mentioned the deer, and moose deer, the bear, the wolf, the fox, and

wolverines, wild cats, otters, and beavers. The humming-bird abounds in Canada, and the rattle-snake is somewhat common. Fishes are abundant in its numerous lakes, and its herring and salmon fisheries are considerable.

THE RATTLE-SNAKE.

The inhabitants consist of aborigines,—Chippeways and Mohawks,—and European settlers, and their descendants. Most of them reside in villages, and have embraced Christianity. The Europeans are partly English and partly of French origin; the latter form the majority in Lower, and the former the majority in Upper Canada.

The chief towns of Upper Canada are Toronto and Kingston; of Lower Canada, Quebec and Montreal. All the other towns in these two divisions of the country are small.

Canada, forming a part of the British empire, is governed according to English laws. Its governor is a delegate of the British monarch, and he is amenable for his conduct to the British parliament.

THE UNITED STATES.

SECTION II.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE United States of North America comprise the eastern portion of the continent south of the British territories. These states,—now thirty-two in number, beside one district and six territories,—constitute the most powerful republic in the world. With the Indian countries, to which they lay claim, they extend from the Atlantic Ocean to the

Pacific, and are bounded on the south by the Mexican sea and territory; a space nearly equal in extent to all Europe.

The chief rivers of the United States are the Mississippi, the Missouri, the Ohio, the Hudson, the Connecticut, the Delaware, the Chesapeake, the Potomac, the Savannah, and the St. John's and James River. The Falls of Niagara,

FALLS OF NIAGARA.

on a stream connecting the Lakes Ontario and Erie, are partly in the British territories of Canada, and partly in those of the United States. These Falls form a sublime spectacle to the traveller, and have been glowingly described by many enraptured tourists.

The climate of the United States of America is for the most part genial: cold indeed in winter, but favourable to health and cultivation at all other seasons of the year. The soil is rich and fertile, producing every kind of grain, fruits, and vegetables, known in Europe.

The animals of the United States, both domestic and wild, are similar to those of Canada. Bisons, or buffaloes, and oxen, are here seen in herds in a wild state, grazing in company with the deer, especially on the borders of the Mississippi. In many parts of the country the rattle-snake is found; a reptile which inspires peculiar dread.

The inhabitants of this country are chiefly the descend-

BISON.

ants of the English, who in the times of the Stuarts emigrated from England chiefly to avoid persecution for their religious faith, but partly to improve their temporal condition. For a series of years these descendants of the "pilgrim fathers" owned the rule of the British sceptre; but they so multiplied and grew, and became so powerful, that in 1776 the United States took their station among the independent powers of the civilized world. The cause of this separation from their mother country was owing to the attempts made by Great Britain to levy taxes on her subjects in America, without giving them representation, which created such discontent and resentment that they revolted and made a "Declaration of Independence," which they supported and won by the sword. The first colony was planted in America in the time of Queen Elizabeth, by the celebrated Sir Walter Raleigh: a fact which shows that the population and the power of the United States were built up in the short space of about two centuries. So great and mighty has the United States become as a nation, that in every part man is found busied in erecting houses, founding cities, opening new lands, and subjugating and cultivating nature. The blow of the hatchet and the blast of the forge is heard on every hand. Ancient forests are delivered to the flames, and the plough speeds triumphantly over the soil on which they had flourished undisturbed for ages.

SECTION III.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE chief towns of the United States are Washington, the capital, New York, Baltimore, Philadelphia, Boston, and New Orleans. Washington is situated on the left bank of the Potomac, and is the seat of government. It takes its name from General Washington, by whose skill and prowess American independence was chiefly secured. The most striking and important of its public buildings is the Capitol, which is constructed of freestone, and is composed of a centre and two wings. In the north wing is the senate chamber; in the south wing, the chamber of the representatives. Altogether it is a fine building, and worthy of a great nation.

The United States is a great manufacturing and commercial country. In this respect it is now, perhaps, second only to the mother country, England. Its exports and imports are about equal, being about £65,000,000 each; and they have steadily increased in value. Since the adoption of free trade in England, large quantities of grain have been brought thither from America. The manufactures of the United States are similar to those of Great Britain, and therefore need not be enumerated.

Great attention is paid to education in the United States. The academies and grammar schools amount to nearly 4,000; and there are no less than 103 colleges, besides medical, theological, and law schools. In many parts of the United States, elementary education is more generally diffused than in Great Britain; and the higher branches of education are well taught in some of the colleges.

The religion of the United States comprises sects and parties of almost every name. There are Baptists, Presbyterians, Congregationalists, Episcopalians, Roman Catholics, Methodists, Lutherans, German Calvinists, Dutch Calvinists, Friends, Jews, Menonites, Moravians, Mormonites, New Jerusalemites, Shakers, Tunkers, Uni-

tarians, and Universalists. The Baptists, Presbyterians, and Methodists, are the most numerous.

Each state in the Union has its own laws and form of government; but the whole is under the control of a president, a senate, and a certain number of representatives elected by the several states. The president and vice-president are elected every four years. The legislative authority is vested in a Congress of the senate and the representatives. The Senate is composed of two members from each state, who are chosen every six years. The House of Representatives is composed of members from the several states, elected by the people for the term of two years. The representatives are apportioned among the different states according to population. The congress possesses vast powers. It raises and maintains the army and navy; declares war; constitutes tribunals inferior to the supreme courts; defines and punishes piracy and forgeries; frames general laws of naturalization; coins money, and makes laws for the punishment of forgers; regulates commerce; and imposes and collects taxes for the common defence and welfare of all the states. In a word, it has equal power with the British parliament.

MEXICO.

SECTION IV.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Mexico is bounded on the north and north-east by the United States of America; on the south-east by Guatemala; on the south-west and west by the Pacific; and on the east by the Gulf of Mexico and the Bay of Honduras.

This immense country is divided by Nature into three regions; namely, the eastern region, which comprehends the peninsula of Yucatan, the western declivity of the table land of Guatemala, the plain of Tobasco, and the isthmus of Tehuantepec; the central region, which consists of several table lands, plains, and mountains; and the

northern region, which comprises the plains of Cinaloa, and the hilly region of Sonora. The Mexican territories properly extend still further than this, comprehending a considerable portion of the mainland of North America; namely, the two Californias; the region extending between Upper California and the Stony Mountains; the vale of the Rio del Norte, or New Mexico; and Texas, or the country extending east of the Stony Mountains, to the boundary line of the United States of America. Of the country lying north and east of Upper California little is known; two lakes of great extent are stated to occur in it, one of which is salt.

The climate of Mexico, as might be expected from the extent of the country, is very various; so also are its productions. Humboldt asserts that it produces almost all the vegetable productions which are found between the equator and the polar circle. Every kind of grain is to be met with which is grown in Europe, except oats, which are not used, as Mexican horses are fed with barley. The fruits and vegetables of Europe are also cultivated in Mexico; as are the fruits, grains, and vegetables of tropical climates. Three plants grow wild in the forests, which form articles of export. These are, jalapa, sarsaparilla, and vanilla.

All the domestic animals of Europe, which were first introduced by the Spaniards, have multiplied greatly in Mexico. Buffaloes are abundant, and so is game of various descriptions, but carnivorous wild animals are not numerous. Among the birds are various kinds of parrots, macaws, and humming-birds. The lakes abound in fish. Bees and the cochineal insect are bred in great numbers; and the Gulf of California is noted for its pearl shells.

Mexico is noted for its mines of gold and silver. In California, gold is found even on the surface of the ground, and in the beds of its rivers. Mexico has also mines of iron, copper, tin, lead, and quicksilver. Carbonate of soda is found in its lakes.

The population of Mexico is composed of Creoles, or

descendants of Europeans; of Indians, or natives; and of those of mixed blood. The bulk of the population still consists of the descendants of those nations which inhabited the country at the time of the Spanish invasion. The aboriginal tribes resemble one another in the principal features of their face and body; but they are said to speak languages which differ as far from each other as the English from the Russian. Humboldt states that twenty languages were spoken within the territories of the States of Mexico, south of 33° north latitude. The language most extensively spoken is that of the Azteks, which seems to be understood by nearly all the tribes; next to that of the Azteks, the language of the Otomites is the most widely spread.

SECTION V.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Mexico, like North America, is divided into several states. The Confederation, called the United Mexican States, consists of twenty-two republics or states, besides three territories, and an immense tract of country which has not been annexed to any of them. By the recent war, however, between the Americans and Mexicans, much of the Mexican territory has been ceded to America, and it yet remains to be seen whether the whole country will not

MEXICO.

become subjected to the power of the American States; or, rather, united with them in one grand confederacy.

The chief cities of the Mexican States are, Mexico, which contains nearly 200,000 inhabitants; Puebla, Queretaro, and Guadalaxara. The chief port on the east is Vera Cruz, on the coast of the Mexican Sea; and that on the west is Acapulco, on the shore of the Pacific Ocean. Acapulco was long famous for its commerce with the Philippine Islands, and with Peru and Chili, which was chiefly carried on by Spaniards.

The chief manufactures of Mexico are cotton, wool, soap, leather, and saddlery. Its maritime commerce is considerable. Its exports are gold, silver, cochineal, sugar, indigo, salt meat, hides, sarsaparilla, vanilla, jalap, soap, Campeachy wood, fustic, Tabascan pepper, and coffee. The commerce of Mexico is mostly carried on in foreign vessels.

Mexico was for a long series of years under the dominion of the Spanish monarchs, and it was then governed by Spanish viceroys. Within the last thirty years, however, the Mexicans, by a successful revolt, established their independence, and its constitution became then modelled on that of the United States of America. Most of the articles in the Fundamental Act, which was published in 1824, are transcripts of the corresponding articles of the American Act of Independence. But though the great outlines of its constitution resemble in many points those of the United States of America, the Mexican Congress is vested with much greater authority. At the present time, however, the country is in an unsettled condition, and the Mexican Congress is shorn of its power.

GUATEMALA.

SECTION VI.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ETC.

GUATEMALA, which now constitutes the Republic of Central America, is that extent of country which lies between the Mexican States and the Republic of Colombia.

It is bounded on the north by Mexico; on the west, by the Pacific Ocean; on the east, by the Bay of Yucatan; and on the south, by Colombia. It is for the most part mountainous; but it possesses valleys and plains, the soil of which yields all the productions of the torrid, temperate, and frigid zones. In the south is the great lake of Nicaragua, which is about 160 miles in length, and 100 miles in breadth, and is connected by the river of St. Juan to the Colombian Sea. Guatemala possesses many rich mines.

The country of Guatemala was very little known to Europe till the revolution of 1821 to 1823. It is divided into five states, and contains about 2,000,000 inhabitants; not more than the twentieth part it would contain were it only as well peopled as our own country.

The chief towns are, Guatemala, the capital; St. Salvador; Chiguimala; and Vera Paz. Guatemala enjoys an eternal spring; the weather nearly the whole year resembling that of the month of June in England. Earthquakes are frequent; and in 1830, several buildings of the town were destroyed by such a fearful visitation. The ancient capital of Guatemala, which is about twenty-six miles distant from the present capital, was destroyed in 1773, by one of the most tremendous earthquakes which we have on record.

For a time the ruins of this town were abandoned, but at present it is inhabited by about 18,000 persons. A great part of the place, however, is still in ruins. It is stated that 8,000 families were swallowed up in the abyss opened by this fearful convulsion of Nature.

The form of government in Guatemala is that of a representative federal republic, with a president and vice-president. By its constitution, slavery is abolished, individual liberty is secured, and the freedom of the press is guaranteed. All this indicates a high state of civilization. Its religion is the Roman Catholic.

COLOMBIA.

SECTION VII.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ETC.

COLOMBIA comprises all the northern and north-western provinces of South America. It is bounded on the north by the Caribbean Sea; on the east, by Guiana; on the west, by the Pacific Ocean; and on the south, by Peru and Brazil. It is nearly 1,300 miles in extent from east to west, and about 1000 in its greatest breadth. Its mountains, plains, and rivers, are all magnificent. In the northern departments the climate is very hot; but the middle and southern parts are milder, and very congenial to health, and the cultivation of grain, fruits, and vegetables. The woods and plains in these parts have a most luxuriant and perpetual verdure.

The chief rivers of Colombia are, the Orinoco, the Magdalena, and the Cauca. Among its most remarkable mountains are the Chimboraso, Pichincha, Cotopaxi, all of which are volcanic. The Chimboraso is 21,440 feet above the level of the sea; and though it lies in the torrid zone, it is covered with perpetual snow. The most formidable of these volcanoes is the Cotopaxi, from which there have been several eruptions at different periods. The last eruption occurred in 1808.

Colombia is divided into three independent republics; namely, Equador, New Granada, and Venezuela. Each of these republics consists of a confederation of states, after the model of the United States, and they are leagued together for mutual protection.

The chief towns of Colombia are, in Equador, Quito, the capital, Panama, Guayaquil, and Guenza; in New Granada, Bogota, the capital, Cartagena, and Maracaybo; in Venezuela, Caraccas, the capital, and Cumana.

The inhabitants of Colombia are partly Creoles of Spanish descent, and partly aborigines; the natives consist of different races and of various degrees of civilization, the greater part of whom are wanderers, living chiefly by hunting and fishing, and on the roots of the earth.

The religion of the civilized inhabitants of Colombia is the Roman Catholic.

PERU.

SECTION VIII.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

PERU, a country in South America, is bounded on the east by Colombia, the Brazilian province of Rio Negro, and the river Madeira; on the west by the Pacific; and on the south and south-east by Bolivia. Its length from south to north is about 1,150 miles; its width varies from 30 to 650 miles. Its area exceeds 500,000 square miles; being about two and a half times the extent of France.

Throughout its whole length Peru is intersected by the Andes mountains and their branches; but the eastern part consists of vast pampas or plains. Between its mountains are several fine and fertile valleys, through which numerous rivers, having their sources in the mountains, flow with a peculiarly rapid course. Many of its mountains are covered with thick forests, which supply several articles for commerce and for domestic use; such as vanilla, sarsaparilla, copaiva, caoutchouc, several kinds of resin and gum, various barks and woods used for dyes, the indigo plant, and various kinds of lofty trees, useful as timber or for cabinet work, as cedar and mahogany.

The climate of Peru varies according to the height and local circumstances of the country. It is not so hot as might be supposed. In summer the weather is delightfully fine, and the heat is moderated by the sea and land breezes. Along the coast rain is almost unknown, but it is frequent in the interior. The country on the whole is considered very healthy; but it is subject to earthquakes in almost every part.

Among the productions of Peru are wheat, barley, rice, Indian corn, potatoes, yams, mandive, bananas, and sweet potatoes. Sugar-cane plantations are numerous, and most of the fruit-trees peculiar to the southern countries of Europe succeed well; but those of England are not common.

Vines grow in every valley, and the olive-tree is cultivated, though not to a great extent. There are, also, plantations of coffee, cocao, and coca, the latter of which is an herb much used by the Indian population, who chew it with a small quantity of lime.

The chief domestic animals of Peru are horses, mules, llamas (which are used on the table-land of Pasco for the transport of merchandize), cattle, and sheep. Nearly all the wild animals peculiar to South America are found in Peru; as the jaguar, the puma, the spectacled bear, sloths, armadillos, ant-eaters, guanacoes, vicunas, and several species of monkeys, which are here used for food. Among the birds of Peru are the condor, parrot, macaw, and parroquet. Whales and seals abound along the coast, and fish are plentiful in the large rivers of the eastern region. The manatee and the turtle are also found in these rivers, and alligators, often thirty feet long, are numerous.

Peru is noted for its gold and silver mines, though their produce is by no means so great as it was in former ages. Among its other minerals are copper, lead, quicksilver, iron, sulphur, salt, and saltpetre. Nearly all the mines of the precious metals are on the most elevated parts of the Andes, which renders the working of them difficult and expensive.

The inhabitants of Peru consist of Creoles, or descendants of Europeans, Peruvian Indians, and a mixed race, the offspring of Europeans and Indian women. The Peruvian Indians inhabit the Valles and the Montana, and they speak the Quichua language, which is usually called the language of the Incas. These people had attained a considerable degree of civilization at the time of the arrival of the Spaniards; but since that period they have improved, in so far as they have been taught the use of iron implements and domestic animals to assist them in their agricultural labour. Various other native tribes exist in Peru, some of which have been taught the arts of civilization, and have been partially converted to Christianity; but there are others who are still in a barbarous condition, living naked in the woods in a state of perfect equality.

SECTION IX.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

PERU is divided into eight departments, namely, Truxillo, Junin, Lima, Huancabelica, Ayacucho, Cuzco, Arequipa, and Puno. The countries inhabited by the independent tribes are not included in these departments.

The chief towns of Peru are Lima, Cuzco, Arequipa, and Truxillo. Its chief port, Callao, was destroyed by earthquake in 1746. Lima is a large, populous, and wealthy city, on the banks of the Limac. Cuzco is the most ancient city; it was long the capital of the Incas, the emperors of Peru, before its conquest by the Spaniards.

The manufactures of Peru are cotton and woollen stuffs, cordovan leather, soap, iron utensils, and articles of gold and silver. Its foreign commerce is considerable, the chief articles of export being the produce of the mines (especially silver), sugar, saltpetre, cotton, tobacco, salt, bark, wool, and guano.

The Spanish domination of Peru was overthrown in 1824; and the constitution, as it at present exists, was proclaimed in the following year. This constitution seems to aim at uniting a federal republic with a central government. The provincial governments of the departments have the power of framing laws for the provinces; but these laws must nevertheless obtain the sanction of the congress before they are put into force. The national congress consists of two bodies, a senate and a house of representatives. The president, in whose hands the executive power is placed, is chosen for four years, and he cannot be re-elected. He is assisted in the administration of affairs by a ministry of his own choice, and by a state council elected by the legislature. The judicial power is independent of the executive; and all its officers—judges, prefects, and sub-prefects—are elected by congress from candidates proposed by the provincial governments. In matters of religion, the laws of Peru are arbitrary. The Roman Catholic religion alone can be publicly exercised.

BOLIVIA.

SECTION X.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ETC.

Bolivia is the name adopted by one of the new republics which have been recently formed in South America. Originally it was called Upper Peru, and it formed a portion of the vice-royalty of Buenos Ayres, or De la Plata. It takes its name from General Bolivar, who headed the patriots who fought for and achieved the independence of the country in 1824.

Bolivia is bounded on the north by the territory of Peru; on the west, by the Pacific Ocean; on the south, by the states of La Plata; and on the east, by Brazil.

The country of Bolivia so much resembles that of Peru, that a particular description of it is unnecessary. Its mountains belong to the same chains as those of Peru, and its chief rivers take their rise in these mountains, as do the numerous rivers of Peru. Its productions also, and its animals, both domestic and wild, are similar to those of Peru. Many of its birds, however, seem to be unknown to naturalists: there have been noticed among them several species of turkey, and a multitude of singing birds, as the thrush, the whistler, and the maltico; the latter of which is remarkable for its plumage and the sweetness of its note.

The minerals of Bolivia are gold, silver, copper, lead, tin, saltpetre, sulphur, and salt.

The inhabitants of Bolivia are partly aborigines and partly of foreign extraction; the former preponderating in number. The aborigines may be divided into those who speak the Quichua language, and those who speak different dialects. The Quichua language prevails among those who reside on the coast and in the valley of the Desaguadero. These people have made some advances in the arts of civilized life, and have been partially converted to the Roman Catholic faith. The natives who do not speak the Quichua language are divided into a great number of tribes. Some of these tribes have been converted to the Christian

religion, and apply themselves to agricultural pursuits; but there are other tribes who remain in a Pagan state, and who lead a roving life, living mostly on game, wild roots, and fruits, and go naked.

The republic of Bolivia is politically divided into five departments, and each department into provinces. Its chief towns are—Chuquisaca, the seat of government; Potosi, renowned for its mineral wealth; La Paz; Porco; and Orepasa. In religion, government, and education, it resembles Peru. The country is almost excluded from foreign commerce; its exports are nearly altogether limited to the precious metals, to different kinds of woollens made of the wool of the llamas and alpacas, and to hats made of the wool of the vicunas and Peruvian bark. Its chief manufacture is that of cotton.

LA PLATA.

SECTION XI.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ETC.

THE territory of La Plata is bounded on the north by Bolivia and part of the district called Amazonia; on the west, by Chili; on the east, by Brazil and the Atlantic; and on the south, by the Indian country bordering on Patagonia. Its length is about 1,320 miles, and its average width about 620. Its area is calculated at 726,000 square miles, or more than three times the extent of France.

In the northern parts of La Plata, the face of Nature is diversified by chains of mountains, extensive valleys, and numerous streams. The central and southern parts are generally low and level, and terminate in vast fertile plains, called the Pampas, which present one uniform expanse of waving grass, uninterrupted by wood or eminence, for several hundred miles. The herbage of these plains affords pasture to innumerable herds of cattle, which rove over a great part of South America, and which are chiefly sought after by the Spanish hunters for their fat and hides.

The great differences of the level within the territories of La Plata produce a very different climate in the various

regions of which it is composed. In some parts the cold is severe; in others the heat is so intense as occasionally almost to produce suffocation; while in other parts the climate is between these two extremes. In some parts, as in the western pampas, the air is extremely dry, and rain is scarce; while in the eastern pampas, rain occurs all the year round, and a heavy dew falls every night. In these latter parts, thunder-storms of an awful character are very frequent, but they generally last only a short time. A part of the plains is subject to periodical drought of long duration, during which birds, wild animals, cattle, and horses perish for want of food and water, in great numbers.

Among the productions of La Plata are, in the north, mandive, rice, Indian corn, coca, tobacco, and cotton; in the south, wheat, Indian corn, barley, and lucerne. In the north, wild plants of great use are produced, such as the algaroba-tree, quinaquina, and the palm-tree, &c.; in the south, the fruit-trees which are cultivated are mostly those of Southern Europe, such as the vine, orange, fig, olive, peach, apricot, apple, and pear.

The domestic animals of La Plata are horses, mules, asses, and cattle, in which the chief exchangeable wealth of the inhabitants consists. Sheep, goats, and hogs are bred, but not to a great extent. Most of the wild animals of South America are found in La Plata; and the most common birds are the green parrot, wild duck, pigeon, quail, and carrion vulture. The condor and emu are sometimes seen. Serpents are not numerous, but there are various kinds of noxious insects, venomous spiders, &c.; and locusts frequently destroy the crops. Bees are common, and the cochineal insect is reared on the banks of the Salado. Along the coast south of the La Plata, whales, sea-lions, and sea-elephants are numerous.

The minerals of La Plata are gold, silver, iron, lead, salt, rock-salt, and coal.

The population of this country consists of descendants of Spaniards, who are chiefly cultivators of the ground, and of Indians. Some of the Indian tribes are subject to the

dominion of the whites, but the greater part are independent. Most of the Indian tribes are nomadic in their habits; always wandering about in the wide plains, in quest of pastures for their horses. Other tribes, however, who are under subjection to the Jesuits, have fixed habitations, and cultivate the ground.

La Plata at the present time is divided into twelve states, quite unconnected with one another; each of them being separated from its neighbour by extensive tracts, either of desert or of uncultivated country. They are often at war with each other; and so defenceless are they from want of assistance from their neighbours, that most of them have fallen under the authority of individuals, called dictators. Despotic governments, indeed, have taken the place of republican institutions.

The principal cities of La Plata are Parava, the capital, Mendoza, Cordova, St. Juan, Tucuman, St. Jago, and Santa Fé. Buenos Ayres formed one of the states of La Plata till 1853, when it became an independent Republic, having an area of about 200,000 square miles, with a population of about 400,000. The city of Buenos Ayres, the capital, has about 120,000 inhabitants. It has a university. It carries on an extensive trade, though its harbour is very bad. Cordova is noted for its mules; St. Juan, for its trade in brandy; and Tucuman, for its college and cathedral.

A considerable trade is carried on between La Plata and European countries, principally through Buenos Ayres, in precious metals, copper, ox and horse hides, jerked beef, horns, horse hair, sheep wool, chinchilla skins, natria skins, tallow, bark, cotton, sheep skins, flour, corn, and sundry minor articles. The most important branch of manufacturing industry is that of *ponchos*, or oblong-square pieces of woollen cloth, with a hole in the middle to pass the head through. Saddle-cloths, and some woollen fabrics for women's dresses, are also made.

CHILI.

SECTION XII.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ETC.

CHILI, one of the new republics of South America, lies along the shores of the Pacific Ocean. It is bounded on the east, by the Andes; on the north, by Bolivia; on the west by the Pacific; and on the south, by Patagonia. Its extent, from south to north, is about 1,175 miles, and its average breadth about 180 miles. Its area is calculated at 176,250 square miles.

The mountains of this country are called the Chilian Andes; among which there are fourteen volcanoes in a constant state of eruption, and many others from which smoke is occasionally discharged. No less than 120 rivers have their sources in the Andes, and flow through the country, the chief of which is the Maule.

The climate of Chili varies much in the different districts, but is everywhere conducive to health. The greatest heat occurs in the months of January and February, at which time the thermometer frequently rises to 85 degrees. The country is greatly subject to earthquakes. In the northern districts slight shocks are felt almost every day; and occasionally they destroy towns, and lay waste a great extent of territory.

Agriculture is chiefly limited to the productions of Europe. Wheat is everywhere cultivated, and barley, Indian corn, and oats are grown. Leguminous vegetables are grown abundantly, and potatoes are raised in the northern districts to a great extent; as are also melons, water-melons, and pumpkins. Among the fruit-trees are the fig, vine, pomegranate, orange, peach, and olive. Forests cover a considerable portion of the southern provinces, and they contain many fine timber trees, which form one of the more important articles of export.

The domestic animals of Chili are cattle, which are very abundant in some parts, and horses, goats, sheep, and swine.

Its minerals are gold, silver, copper, coal, lead, tin, iron, and salt.

The population of Chili, north of the Rio Biobio, is entirely composed of descendants of Europeans; south of the Biobio, it consists of Araucanian Indians, who appear to be divided into several tribes, who speak different dialects of the same language. Some of these tribes have never been conquered, and they have destroyed nearly all the settlements established south of Biobio. These nations derive their subsistence from agriculture; but there are other tribes who are addicted to a wandering life. All the tribes in the south of Chili are independent. Their territory is divided into four confederated principalities, each under its Toquin, or chief.

The country north of the Biobio is politically divided into several provinces, to which are added the province of Valdivia, comprehending the European settlements south of that river; and the province of Chiloë, which consists of the archipelago of that name, including Juan Fernandez.

The chief towns of Chili are St. Iago, Conception, and Valdivia. St. Iago, the capital, contains about 60,000 inhabitants. Valparaiso, its sea-port, from which it is distant about seventy miles, is the great mart for every kind of merchandise in Chili.

A large portion of the commerce of Chili is in the hands of the English. Its exports are the precious metals, wheat, flour, wine, raisins, jerked beef, almonds, walnuts, timber, hides, guano, and copper. Large quantities of European and American goods are imported into Chili.

The various provinces of Chili do not constitute separate states, but have a central legislature and executive. The executive power is in the hands of a supreme director. The congress is composed of a senate, consisting of twenty members, and of a house of representatives, to which a deputy is sent for every 15,000 inhabitants. This constitution was formed to prevent the disturbances which had long prevailed in Chili; but since its establishment the conflict of political parties has been as rife as heretofore.

URUGUAY, OR BANDA ORIENTAL.

SECTION XIII.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ETC.

THIS country is bounded on the north by Paraguay; on the west, by the river Uruguay; on the south, by the river Plata; and on the east, by the Southern Atlantic. Its extent east and west is about 450 miles.

This is one of the republics of South America; its code resembles that of Napoleon.

Its chief towns are San Felipe, or Monte-Video, its capital; and Maldonado. Monte Video is in general well built, the streets being wide, straight, and intersecting each other at right angles. Its population is about 40,000. Its commerce is on the increase. The principal articles of export are the produce of the numerous herds of the country; as hides, tallow, horns, and salted and jerked beef. The religion is Roman Catholic.

BRAZIL.

SECTION XIV.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ETC.

BRAZIL comprehends the east portion of South America. From north to south it extends above 2,600 miles; and from east to west about 2,400; its surface is calculated at 3,000,000 square miles. Its vast extent brings it into contact with all the countries of South America, except Chili and Patagonia.

The interior of Brazil is for the most part one vast forest, except that in the centre is a sandy plain, called the Llanos, which extends more than 300 miles east and west. This immense plain rises towards the centre into chains of mountains, which extend over a space of more than 600 miles. The surface of Brazil, is, indeed, divided between upland and lowland; but as the boundaries of the two regions have only been ascertained in a few places, it is not possible to establish the proportions of each. They

seem, however, to occupy nearly equal portions; the upland extending over the eastern and central part, and the lowlands along both sides of the Rio Amazonas, with a small portion on the shores and on the south-west border.

There are two extensive chains of mountains in Brazil, which bear a different name in different parts of the country. From these mountains all the rivers of Brazil proceed, which finally pour their tributary waters into the Maranon, or Amazon, the Paraguay, and the Southern Atlantic. Some of these tributaries have a course of about 1,500 miles each.

The largest rivers of Brazil are the Amazon, which rises in Peru, the Rio Negro, the Rio Madeira, the Topayos, the Chingu, the Toccantins, the Araguay, and the Parana. This latter river is noted for its seven wonderful falls, called the Cataract of Parana, which display to the admiring spectator six rainbows rising above each other.

The climate of Brazil is very various. It is generally warm, and in many parts sultry; but the coasts are usually rendered very healthy by a fine breeze from the sea. The seasons are divided into dry and rainy; the latter in some parts begins in January and ends in April, but in others it is of longer duration. In the rainy season vegetation is vigorous and rapid, but from August to December the country resembles a dusty desert. Sometimes there is no rain at all, and then both men and animals die of hunger and thirst.

The cultivated lands of Brazil bear a very small proportion to the whole surface. Among its productions are mandioca, maize, wheat, cara, sweet potatoes, and various kinds of beans. The vegetables of Europe do not succeed well, being generally destroyed by ants and other vermin. The coffee plant, the sugar-cane, cotton, and tobacco are cultivated. The pepper-tree, the cinnamon-tree, and the muscat-tree, are grown in some parts. As regards the native vegetation of Brazil, it is so extensive that it cannot be here described. The fruits of Europe which succeed

best are figs, oranges, pomegranates, quinces, and lemons. The forests of Brazil supply various articles of export, as cloves, cinnamon, sarsaparilla, Brazil nuts, &c.; and they also produce different sorts of timber, and woods for the making of furniture and dyeing. In the northern provinces numerous species of palm abound.

The mineral wealth of Brazil, though very considerable, is limited to a few articles, of which the chief are gold and iron, diamonds, and topazes, and salt.

The domestic animals of Brazil are horses, mules, sheep, goats, swine, and monkeys, the flesh of which is preferred to all others by the Indians. Wild animals are very numerous, the species being similar to those in other parts of South America. The largest bird is the American ostrich, which is found in numerous flocks on the table-land, and is caught for its flesh, eggs, and feathers. The other birds are more remarkable for the beauty of their plumage than their voice. The most beautiful are the toucans, the tanagras, the parrots, the ravens of different colours, the humming birds, and the Balearic crane. Fish is very abundant in Brazil, and is one of the most important sources of wealth to the inhabitants.

The inhabitants of Brazil consist of numerous tribes of aborigines, and of foreigners who have settled in the country within the last three centuries. The native tribes resemble each other in figure, complexion, and habits, and appear to belong to the same race. With the exception of one tribe, called the Muras, who lead a wandering life, all the rest cultivate the ground, and plant the two species of mandioca, bananas, and a kind of palm-trees. All these tribes, however, are still in a very low state of civilization.

Brazil is divided into nineteen provinces, of which fifteen are situated along the ocean, and four in the interior.

Each of these provinces possesses a chief town; but the two most important cities of Brazil are St. Sebastian, or the city of Rio Janeiro, and St. Salvador, or Bahia.

Rio Janeiro is the seat of government, and is delightfully situated on one of the finest harbours in the world. It

contains more than 300,000 inhabitants. It is the largest and most thriving city in South America. Bahia stands on a noble harbour on the eastern coast. It is the second city in point of rank, and contains about 200,000 inhabitants. Pernambuco, a commercial port more to the north, contains about 60,000 inhabitants. The whole population of this extensive country is only estimated at about seven millions, with the exception of the independent aboriginal tribes, who possess more than half of the country.

The foreign commerce of Brazil is very considerable. Its exports are gold, diamonds, sugar, coffee, cotton, cocoa, hides, tobacco, rice, horns, and horn-tips, dye-wood, sarsaparilla, indian-rubber, isinglass, indigo, castor-beans, castor-oil, and various drugs. Its annual exports are estimated at about £10,000,000, of which nearly one-half is exported to England by British vessels. Its imports amount to about the same sum, and more than four-fifths are brought from England and its colonies.

At the present time, Brazil is an hereditary monarchy, limited by a popular assembly. The executive is in the hands of the emperor. The legislature consists of two assemblies, the senate and the chamber of deputies. The senate is chosen by the emperor, and the deputies by the people. The Roman Catholic faith is the religion of the state. All other Christians are imperfectly tolerated, and are not allowed to build churches, or to perform divine service in public. Brazil has now for several years enjoyed more tranquillity than any other state in South America.

GUIANA.

SECTION XV.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ETC.

GUIANA is the name applied to the north-eastern portion of South America, extending from the banks of the river Orinoco, southward to those of the Amazon river. It is bounded on the north by the Atlantic and the Orinoco; on the east, by the Atlantic Ocean; on the south, by the

rivers Maranon and Negro; and on the west, by the Orinoco. Its surface covers an area of about 150,000 square miles.

The chief mountains of Guiana are called the Twasinkie, the Makarapan, Sierra Taripona, Sierra Acaray, and the Carawaymee mountains. Most of these ranges occupy an inconsiderable extent, and the plains between them are of great extent, and well watered with rivers. The largest river in Guiana is the Essequibo; but there are streams of considerable importance, as the Rupunoony, the Demarara, the Berbice, the Courantin, the Surinam, the Mazaroony, and the Oyapoc.

The climate of Guiana is more healthy than that of most places in the West Indies, except the coast. The heat is not near so great as might be expected from the position of the country—it lying near the equator, and having a low coast. There are two rainy seasons, one continuing from April to August, and the other from November to January. Thunder-storms only occur during these seasons; they are violent, but rarely do any damage.

Guiana is one of the most fruitful countries in the world. Its productions are similar to those of Brazil and other countries of South America, and therefore need not be enumerated. The domestic animals are few; its wild animals resemble those of the adjacent countries. Alligators are common in the largest rivers, and the manati, or sea-cow, is sometimes met with. Among the bats are the vampires, which are said to suck the blood of persons when asleep. The birds of Guiana resemble those of other parts in the South American continent.

Guiana is inhabited by Europeans, Africans, and native Americans. The country is divided between Great Britain, Holland, and France. British Guiana comprehends the countries extending from the Courantin river westward to the Orinoco, and from the sea-coast to the sources of the rivers Essequibo and Courantin. Dutch Guiana extends along the coast from the Courantin river to the Mazaroony, and between them inland to their sources. French Guiana

extends along the coast from the river Marony to the Oyapoc, which separates it from Brazil. Native tribes exist in all these territories, and they are much more civilized than the aboriginal tribes who inhabit the adjacent countries. They cultivate Indian corn, cassava, and various roots; but they are still much attached to a wandering life: a slight inducement often leads them to abandon a well-cultivated spot of ground, and remove to a wilderness.

The chief towns of Guiana are George Town, and Old and New Amsterdam, in the British territories; Ovidos, in the French portion of the country; and Cayenne, on an island of the same name; and Paramaribo, in the country belonging to the Dutch.

The commerce of Guiana is very important. Its chief exports are sugar, rum, molasses, coffee, cotton, arnotto, and cloves. The country, however, is capable of producing far more extensive productions for the purposes of commerce, as the whole of it is very thinly populated.

The several divisions of Guiana are governed by the laws of the country to which they belong. That portion belonging to Great Britain is under a governor-general and commander-in-chief, who includes in the same government the islands of St. Lucia and Trinidad.

PATAGONIA.

SECTION XVI.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ETC.

PATAGONIA comprehends the most southern portion of the continent of South America. It is divided from the provinces of La Plata by the Rio Negro river, and on the east it is washed by the Atlantic, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean. From Chili it is partly divided by the Andes mountains, and partly by the Reloncavi Sound and Reloncavi Inlet. Its whole area is about 350,000 square miles. The country comprehends two regions—the mountain region and the plains. The mountain region occupies the countries extending along the shores of the Pacific and

the western portion of the Straits of Magellan; the plains occupy the eastern portion of the country, stretching out along the Atlantic and the eastern part of the Straits of Magellan. In general, the country, both mountain and plain, is very barren; the sterility of the latter being partly owing to the nature of the soil, and partly to the want of rain. Westerly winds prevail during nine months of the year, and though they saturate the western declivity of the Andes with rain, not a drop falls on the plains while they blow; and even during the three winter months, they are only occasionally visited by refreshing showers. In summer, the heat is scorching: in winter, the air, though cold, is mostly elastic and wholesome.

The plains of Patagonia are, for the most part, without vegetation; but the sides of the mountains are covered with forests which rival in luxuriance those of the tropical regions. Stately trees, with smooth and highly-coloured barks, are covered with parasitical plants, and arborescent grasses twine round them to the height of thirty or forty feet. This is the native soil of the fuchsia, which grows to a large tree. In some parts the forests are chiefly composed of evergreens, some of which, as the evergreen beech, are large enough to be used as timber.

Among the animals of Patagonia, domestic and wild, are horses, dogs, cattle, deer, pumas, wolves, guanacoes, foxes, armadilloes, &c. On the coast are common seals, fur-seals, otters, sea-lions, and sea-elephants. Land birds are not numerous, except emus, condors, and carrion-hawks. The sea birds consist of gulls, grebes, and penguins. Fish is abundant; but insects are rare, except scorpions. The chief mineral of Patagonia is salt, which is found in hollows in solid masses several feet thick. Near Port St. Julian there are, also, salt-lakes, in which the salt crystallizes in large cubes.

Europeans have never formed any settlement in any part of Patagonia. The country is entirely possessed by the natives, who are represented as savages, and taller than the general race of mankind. Some navigators have

represented them as being giants in stature, but their general height does not exceed six feet. There are several tribes of Patagonians, all of whom, under their hereditary *ulmens*, or caciques, live in *duars*, or tented villages, and rove about like the Arabs of the Great Sahara, in Africa. The food of these tribes varies: some subsist on the flesh of horses, emus, cavias, and guanacoes, with a few roots; while others live only on seals, birds, and fish, especially shell-fish. One tribe, called the Fŭegians, are of different stature to most of the Patagonians. The men, though bulky, vary in height from 4 ft. 10 in. to 5 ft. 6 in., while the average height of females is only 4 ft. some inches. It is this tribe which chiefly subsists on fish, and like all other savages living on the produce of fishing, they seem more inclined to adopt the habits of foreigners than the Patagonians or other American tribes who subsist by hunting.

THE WEST INDIAN ISLANDS.

SECTION XVII.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, ETC.

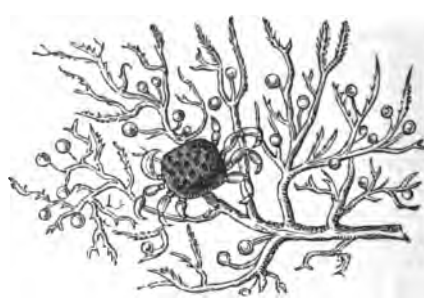
THE West Indian Islands, called by some the Antillas, and by others the American Archipelago, are an assemblage of islands between the two continents, occupying a space of more than 2,000 miles. The first of these, from the north, are the Bahamas and Passage Islands, which belong to Great Britain. Next in order is the vast island of Cuba, which is in the possession of Spain. To the southward of Cuba is the important island of Jamaica, which belongs to Great Britain.

Eastward of Cuba and Jamaica is Hayti, formerly called Hispaniola, and St. Domingo. This island was, a few years ago, divided between the Spaniards and the French, the eastern part being subject to the former, and the western to the latter. Subsequently, after several sanguinary conflicts, the whole was united into one government, under the title of the republic of Hayti. At present one portion of the island forms the empire of Hayti, and the other the republic of Dominica, with San Domingo for the capital.

The island of Hayti is more than 400 miles in length, and about 120 in breadth. Its climate is said to be pernicious to foreigners, but wholesome to the native population. Its productions are varied, rich, and abundant. Its chief articles of export are coffee, sugar, indigo, cotton, and cocoa. The surface of the islands consists of hills and valleys, woods and rivulets. Its hills are covered with forests of mahogany, Brazil-wood, palms, elms, oaks, ebony, and other valuable timber and dye-woods. Game abounds in the forests. The principal commercial wealth of the island is derived from the forests, which cover the greatest part of the mountains.

Port au Prince is the capital and seat of government of the empire of Hayti, the population of which is estimated at about 30,000. St. Domingo, on the southern coast, is the oldest European establishment in America, it having been founded by Columbus, who discovered the country in 1504.

Eastward of Hayti is Porto Rico, belonging to Spain. Next come the Virgin Islands, partly belonging to Denmark and partly to Great Britain. The Caribbee, or Windward Islands, are the last in succession, which islands wholly belong to different European states, but chiefly to Great Britain.



FUCUS NATANS.—SEA-WEED AND CRAB, BOTH THE SIZE OF NATURE.

Book the Seventh.

AUSTRALIA.

SECTION I.—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

AUSTRALIA is the name recently adopted to designate all the countries which are considered as forming the fifth division of the globe. It consists of one very large island, formerly called New Holland, lying between 115° and 153° east longitude, and 10° 31′ and 39° south latitude; and of an indefinite number of smaller islands lying to the south-east, east, and north-east of this continent. In its greatest length the continent of Australia extends 2,400 miles between Shark's Bay, on the west coast, and Cape Sandy, on the eastern; and from north to south, between Cape York, on Torres Straits, to Cape Otway, on Bass's Straits, about 1,700 miles. Its average breadth is about 1,400 miles.

The nearest of the Asiatic islands to the continent of Australia are Timor and Timorlaut; and it is divided from the Sandwich Islands by Bass's Straits, which extend about 140 miles from north to south. The other islands belonging to Australia are in the Pacific, either in groups or scattered singly over the sea. They may be divided into those to the north, and those to the south of the equator. Those to the north are the Bonin Sima Islands, the Ladrones, the Carolinas, Lord Mulgrave's Islands, as Ralick, Radack, and Marshall Islands, and the Sandwich Islands: those to the south are the large island of New

PAU, OR INCLOSED TOWN, SANDWICH ISLANDS.

Guinea, the Admiralty Group, and the islands of New Britain, New Ireland, and the Lusiade Archipelago; New Caledonia, the New Hebrides, the Fejee Islands, the Santa Cruz Archipelago, Cook's Islands, the Dangerous Archipelago, the Marquesas Islands, Easter Island, New Zealand, and Van Diemen's Land, or Tasmania.

NEW ZEALANDER

Very little of the interior of Australia is now unknown. This region is traversed by a range of mountains; and the country between this range and the sea is generally of a hilly nature. The flats which are found along the shore are in most places of small breadth, and they have commonly a sandy soil, which is by no means fertile. They, however, afford good sheep pastures. The hilly districts are more fruitful, except where they are composed of bare rocks; and the valleys have usually a soil which in its natural state displays very

vigorous vegetation, and which produces good crops of grain when cultivated. The interior of the country is divided, by geographers, into the region of the Terraces, and the Plains, or Lowlands. The terraces are the western declivity of the mountain range which extends parallel to the coast, and they are composed of more or less extensive plains, separated from one another by low ridges of hills. The lowlands join the terraces on the west; and their extent in that direction, as well as to the north, is unknown. In character they resemble the steppes of Asia, but they appear to be better adapted to sustain inhabitants. The soil of these plains presents two varieties; it is either a red sandy loam, or a coarse white sand. Apparently, large tracts of this part of the country are of recent formation; that is, they have been formed by the retiring of the sea.

The rivers of Australia, though numerous, are not of great importance. For the most part they are only torrents flowing from the mountains or terrace lands; and some of the largest terminate in marshes covered with weeds. The chief rivers of the mountain regions are the Hawkesbury, the Shoal-Haven, and the Hunter river; those traversing the lowlands are the Morumbidgee, the Murray, the Lachlan, the Macquarie, and the Darling. The Murray river is the most important, as it is navigable for vessels of considerable burden fifty miles from its mouth. Its whole length is about 3,000 miles.

The climate of Australia differs from that of all other countries. One of its most remarkable characteristics is the long droughts which occasionally prevail. Thus, in 1826 a drought commenced which continued for three years, and during which all minor vegetation perished. Another peculiarity is the rapid transition from heat to cold; thermometers having been known to vary twenty-five degrees in less than a single hour. But, notwithstanding these remarkable occurrences, the climate of Australia is commonly congenial to health, and delightful. Even the great heats which occur are not relaxing in their effects on the constitution. They are said to be so intense

as to set the forest on fire. On the eastern coast the climate is so healthy that endemic diseases, except ophthalmia, are unknown. In the interior, and to the west of the mountain ranges, the wet season is usually in summer; on the coast it commences at the beginning of the winter. Hail-storms occur in December and January; and dews are frequently heavy, and sometimes they fall like a drizzling rain. Frosts are rarely felt on the low coasts, but in the hilly districts they are common; and snow lies on the mountains and adjacent valleys for several days together.

The vegetation of Australia is no less peculiar than its climate. The genera of a large proportion of its plants, indeed, are unknown in other parts of the globe. Thus, in the southern parts the forests consist of many species of gigantic eucalypti, or gum-trees, many of which are a hundred and fifty feet high, with a girth of from twenty-five to forty feet. Among these are intermingled wattle-trees, with their rich profusion of yellow tufted flowers and bean-like pods, and wild figs of enormous size, which afford food and shelter to numerous birds of different species. Indeed, most of the trees are evergreens. It is, however, among the plants of a smaller growth that the botanist discovers the greatest number of new and strictly Australian forms. Its compound-flowering plants by thousands are all of a structure with which he is unacquainted elsewhere. Here he finds numerous epacrideæ, with different coloured blossoms; and here also he meets with the yellow-flowered species of the dillenia tribe, looking like shrubby buttercups. Even the common weeds of Australia are often peculiar in their genera. Many of the umbelliferous plants are remarkable objects, especially the beautiful Didiscus cœruleus. To these remarkable peculiarities in the vegetation of Australia may be added the lovely Tecoma australis, a climbing trumpet-flower; pines belonging to the genus Callistris, which resemble cypresses; the singular zamias, with the trunk of a dwarf palm and the leaves of a fern; a rich sward of peculiar grasses, and extensive plains, terminating in morasses choked up with gigantic reeds. These features of the vegetation of Australia apply especially

to the parallel of Port Jackson and Moreton Bay; in other parts, as about King George's Sound and Swan River, there is a variation, but the differing species of plants are too numerous to mention.

The mineral riches of Australia are being much explored. Gold, iron, and coal, however, are known to be abundant, and copper, tin, and lead have been discovered. The Burra Burra copper-mine in South Australia is one of the richest in the world. The gold districts of Alexander, Bathurst, Huron, and Ballarat, are so productive, that from the colony as much as £20,000,000 in value has been obtained in one year. Large tracts of limestone occur on the eastern side; clays, fitted for economical purposes, are common in various parts; sandstones, adapted for ornamental buildings, are numerous; gypsum is found from Bathurst to Hunter's River, as also in the vicinity of Swan River; and roofing-slate is found both in the eastern and western parts of Australia.

Australian mammalogy is very peculiar and even anomalous. It is utterly destitute of both pachydermatous and ruminating animals; that is, of all those species of animals which are best adapted for human food, and for the various purposes of social economy. The number of species, also, of other animals is very small, when compared with the actual extent of the country, and the whole number of species spread over the other parts of the world. Among this number are some of new and singular forms, as the wombat, the flying opossum, the flying squirrel, the kangaroo, the kangaroo rat, and the winged pteropus. It was this latter animal which so greatly frightened one of Captain Cook's sailors during his first voyage round the world. Having made a short excursion on shore, the honest tar returned trembling, and declared that he had met the devil creeping slowly through the grass, but that his terror prevented him from making any other observation than that he had long

KANGAROO.

horns, and was about the size of a nine-gallon keg! It is a species of bat, and, like all the frugivorous bats, its flesh resembles that of a chicken. But the most remarkable animal is the ornithorynchus.

The most remarkable fact in Australian ornithology is the total absence of gallinaceous birds; or that tribe which corresponds with the ruminating animals among quadrupeds, and which contains those species which are best adapted for human food. Rapacious birds are common, as the eagle, the falcon, and various species of owls and hawks. Perching birds are numerous everywhere; and among the scansorial order, there exists a vast variety of the parrot tribe, some of which surpass those of the Old World in the variety and gaudiness of their plumage. Doves and pigeons of a small size, and various species of water fowl, are found in New Holland. The most remarkable among the latter are the cereopsis goose, and that *rara avis*, the black swan, a smaller bird than the white swan, but having a neck proportionably longer, and, if possible, a carriage still more graceful.

No detailed accounts have been published concerning the reptiles and fishes of Australia. A species of alligator is said to frequent some of its coasts, and various descriptions of smaller reptiles and snakes are found in different parts of the country. Fish are abundant along the coasts; immense shoals of whales, dolphins, and other cetaceous mammals, often visit them; and the enterprise of the rising colonies established in that quarter of the globe has found a successful outlet in the fishery for these animals. The seal fishery has also been successful; the oil and skins of these animals form an important item in the colonial exports.

SECTION II.—POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE natives of Australia belong to two races—to the Malay, and to a race which, from their resemblance to the African negro, have obtained the name of Australian

negroes. The Malay race occupies all the islands north of the equator, and to the south of it those which lie to the east of twenty degrees west longitude. The Australian negroes extend over the continent, as well as over Van Diemen's Land, New Caledonia, the New Hebrides, New Britain, the Solomon's Archipelago, the Andaman Islands, and New Guinea.

The Australian Negroes are, in general, still living in the lowest state of civilization. They are cannibals; have neither habitations nor raiment, except that the women sometimes wrap themselves up in a cloak made of opossum skin, or in a blanket; and they are usually wandering about in search of food. They have no chiefs; the authority of a man depends on his personal strength and low cunning. They are not delicate in their diet; when pressed by hunger, they will consume grubs, snakes, carrion flesh, and vermin. They are, however, a lively, good-humoured, inquisitive, and intelligent race; they even acquire the knowledge of reading and writing almost as speedily as Europeans. Their religion is that of Nature. They believe in a good and evil spirit; the former (Koyan) is thought to watch over and protect them from the latter (Potoyan), and to assist them in recovering strayed children, which Potoyan, or the evil spirit, is supposed to decoy for the purpose of devouring them. These are the main articles of their faith.

The English are the only nation who have founded settlements on the continent of Australia. The British possessions are New Holland, Van Diemen's Land, and Norfolk, with other minor islands. The south-eastern part of Australia is that chiefly colonized. Those colonies are Moreton Bay to the north of New South Wales, but at present with somewhat undefined limits; Victoria, to the south of New South Wales; South Australia on the west. Western Australia lies between 31° and 35° south latitude, and 115° and 129° east longitude. The northern part of Australia has not been erected into a colony.

The colony of Tasmania is in a very flourishing condition; and that of New South Wales is rising in importance. In a word, the Australian continent affords a favourable outlet for the surplus population of England, and continual accession is made to its population by emigration. In truth, Australia will, in the lapse of time, evidently become a great and mighty nation.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

Book the First.

WHAT is the meaning of the word Universe?
What does Scripture record of the "lights in the firmament?"
How do these "lights" serve the purposes for which they were created?
What are the conjectures of astronomers concerning them called?
Name the various systems of astronomers.
Describe the Solar system.
What are the names of the planets which revolve round the sun?
What is said of the revolution of these planets?
What are the secondary planets?
What are comets?
What are the stars?
How have astronomers arranged the stars?
What are constellations called?
Name these signs.
What is the middle part of the zodiac called?
What is the figure of the earth?
What is the earth's motion?
Describe what is meant by the equator.
What are the tropics and the polar circles?
What the moon?
How is it proved that the earth and moon are opaque bodies?
What are the tides?

Book the Second.

What is the meaning of the term Geography?
How is the situation of different places determined?
What are latitude and longitude?
How are the degrees of latitude and longitude marked on the map?

How is the earth divided in reference to heat and cold?
Describe the earth's zones.
Into how many climates is the earth divided?
Of what does the terraqueous globe consist?
How is the land divided?
How is the sea divided?
Describe the various parts of land and sea.
Into how many portions is the earth divided?
Describe those portions.

Book the Third.

EUROPE.

What is the position and extent of Europe?
What is the origin of the name "Europe?"
What are its boundaries?
Name its most distant parts.
Describe its surface.
Name its principal mountains.
Name its principal rivers.
Name its chief lakes.
Of what do the minerals of Europe consist?
Say what you know concerning the botany of Europe.
Describe its zoology.
Describe the birds of Europe.
Describe its reptiles.
Describe its insects.
Describe the fishes of Europe.
Name the empires, kingdoms, and states of Europe.
What are the German and Italian states?
Name the principal cities of Europe.

RUSSIA.

Describe the extent of the Russian empire in Europe.
What is the character of its surface?
Name its principal rivers.
Name its chief lakes.
What change did Peter the Great make in the rivers?
Describe the climate of Russia.
What are the different grains of Russia?

What fruits and vegetables are grown in Russia?
What is the character of its forests?
Name its animals, fowls, and fishes.
Its reptiles.
What are the principal minerals of Russia?
Describe its inhabitants.
Name the principal cities of Russia.
Describe St. Petersburg.
Describe Moscow.
Describe Warsaw.
Into how many governments is Russia divided, and what is the amount of its population?
Describe the government of Russia.
What are its chief exports?

AUSTRIA.

Describe the extent of the Austrian empire.
What is the soil of Austria?
Name its principal mountains.
What are the names of its chief lakes and rivers?
What are its chief productions?
Give some particulars of its natural history.
What fishes are found in its rivers?
What particular insects receive attention in this empire?
Name its chief mineral productions.
Name its principal cities.
Give some particulars of Vienna.
Describe Prague.
Describe Venice.
Describe Presburg.
What are the chief exports of Austria?
Describe the Austrian population.
What is the established religion of Austria?
How is its civil administration divided?

TURKEY.

Describe the empire of Turkey in Europe.
How is the empire divided?
Name its principal mountains.
What is the character of its climate?
What of its productions?

Name its principal cities.
Describe Constantinople.
For what is Salonica mentioned?
Describe the inhabitants of Turkey.
Name the Turkish state dignities.
What are the characteristics of the Turkish religion?
What is the government of Turkey?
What is the amount of the population of Turkey?
What is the estimated amount of its revenue?

GREAT BRITAIN.

Of what is Great Britain the legal name?
How is Great Britain situated?
Describe its most distant parts, and extent.
Describe the characteristics of its surface.
Name its principal mountains.
Name its chief rivers.
Name its chief lakes.
Describe its climate and soil.
What was the state of England in early times?
What is its condition at the present day?
What are its wild quadrupeds?
Describe its domestic quadrupeds?
Name its minerals.
Name its principal cities and towns.
Relate anything you can of London.
Say what you know of Bristol, Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham, Hull, Devonport, and Portsmouth.
Describe Edinburgh.
Into how many counties is Great Britain divided?
How many belong to England?
How many belong to Wales?
How many belong to Scotland?
What is its form of government?
Describe its courts of justice.

EUROPEAN ISLANDS BELONGING TO GREAT BRITAIN.

What are the names of the principal islands belonging to England?

Describe these islands separately, distinguishing those on the south, west, and east.

IRELAND.

How is Ireland separated from England and Scotland?
What is its extent, and how is it divided?
Describe its surface and climate.
Name its principal rivers.
What are its chief productions and zoology?
What are its exports and manufactures?
How is Ireland represented in parliament?
How is it ecclesiastically divided?
What religions are professed in Ireland, and how are the clergy supported?
Mention its principal law courts.
Mention its chief cities.
Describe Dublin.
Name some celebrated men who were born there.

SPAIN.

Describe the position of Spain.
Describe its surface.
Mention its principal mountains and rivers.
What is the climate of Spain?
What are its principal productions?
Mention some of its domestic and wild animals.
What peculiar branches of industry in Spain are mentioned?
Name its chief minerals.
How many provinces are there in Spain?
What are the names of the ancient divisions?
Name the chief cities of Spain.
Describe Madrid.
Name some other noted cities of Spain.
What is the established religion of Spain?
What is its revenue?
What are its chief exports?
Describe the government of Spain.

PORTUGAL.

Define the boundaries and extent of Portugal.

What are its chief rivers?
Describe its soil and climate.
Name its principal natural productions.
Name its manufactured articles.
Compare the people with those of Spain.
How is Portugal divided for administrative purposes?
Name its principal cities.
Describe Lisbon, Oporto, and Coimbra.
What is the religion of the Portuguese?
What is the state of education in Portugal?
Describe its government.

PRUSSIA.

Of what divisions do the Prussian dominions consist?
What is the extent of these divisions?
Give a description of them.
How is Prussia divided as regards climate?
Name its chief rivers.
What are its chief vegetable productions?
What are its mineral productions?
Describe its domestic and wild animals.
Name some of its poultry, wild fowl, birds of prey, &c.
How is the Prussian monarchy politically divided?
Name its chief cities.
Describe Berlin.
Give some particulars of Dantzic, Stettin, Konigsberg, Memel, and Thorn.
What is the state of education in Prussia?
What religion do the Prussians profess?
Describe its constitution.

HOLLAND.

What does the name of Holland designate?
Describe its boundaries, extent, and divisions.
What is the character of its surface?
Describe its climate.
Name its principal rivers, canals, and lakes.
What are its domestic and other animals?
What are the wild fowls of Holland?
What minerals are there in Holland?
Name its chief cities.

Describe Amsterdam.
Tell me something about the other cities of Holland.
What is the established religion of Holland?
Describe its articles of commerce and manufactures.
What is the state of education in Holland?
Describe its constitution.

BELGIUM.

When was Belgium created a kingdom, and what was the cause of its origin?
Describe its boundaries and extent.
What is the general character of the country?
Name its principal mountains.
Name its principal rivers.
Of what does its soil consist, and how much of the surface is under cultivation?
What are its chief productions?
What species of timber trees grow in Belgium?
Name its mineral productions.
Give some particulars of its coal mining.
Name the chief domestic quadrupeds of Belgium.
Name its provinces.
Name its chief cities.
Describe Brussels.
Tell me something about other cities of Belgium.
What is the religion of, and what the state of education in Belgium?
Mention its manufactures and exports.
Describe its constitution.

DENMARK.

Describe the position and boundaries of Denmark.
What are the chief characteristics of the surface of Denmark?
Name its rivers, lakes, and canals.
Describe the map of Denmark.
Describe its climate.
Describe its agricultural condition.
What are its minerals?
What are its chief domestic animals?
Describe its fisheries.
How is Denmark divided?

Name its chief cities.
Describe Copenhagen.
What is the state of religion and education in Denmark?
What are the exports?
Describe the government of Denmark.

SWEDEN.

Describe the position, extent, and boundaries of Sweden.
Describe its surface, canals, and rivers.
What is its climate?
Name its chief productions.
Describe the forests of Sweden.
What are its fruits and vegetables?
Name the minerals of Sweden.
Give some particulars of its natural history.
How is Sweden politically divided?
Name its chief cities.
Describe Stockholm.
Describe Upsal and Carlscrona.
What is the religion of Sweden and the state of education?
What are its chief manufactures and exports?
Describe its government.

NAPLES.

What is the position and extent of Naples?
What are the main features of its physical geography?
Mention its most remarkable rivers, lakes, and mountains.
What extent of coast line has Naples?
What are its staple products, fruits, &c.?
Name its chief minerals.
Name its chief animals.
How is Naples divided for administrative purposes?
What are the names of its chief cities?
Describe the city of Naples.
Tell me something about Palermo.
What is the religion of Naples and the state of education?
What has been the character of the government?

HANOVER.

Describe the boundaries and extent of Hanover.

What are the characteristics of its surface?
Name its principal rivers and lakes.
What climate does Hanover possess?
What is the agriculture of Hanover?
Describe its mountains.
Into what provinces is Hanover divided?
What are the names of its chief cities?
Describe the city of Hanover.
What is peculiar of Göttingen and Emden?
Describe the manufactures and commerce of Hanover.
What is the religion of Hanover?

WURTEMBURG.

Describe the situation, boundaries, and extent of Wurtemburg.
Describe the surface of Wurtemburg.
Name its chief rivers.
What are the characteristics of its soil and climate?
Describe its chief productions.
Describe the chief features of its natural history.
Mention its various metals and minerals.
What is the name of its chief city?
Describe Stutgard.
Name the principal manufactures of the country.
What fine arts are encouraged in Wurtemburg?
What is the state of its commerce?
What is the religion of the country?
What is the state of education in Wurtemburg?
Describe its constitution.

BAVARIA.

Of what countries is the kingdom of Bavaria composed?
What is the extent of the country?
Describe its surface.
Name its principal rivers and lakes.
Describe its climate.
What are its chief natural productions?
What are the domestic animals of Bavaria?
What are the most noted fishes of its rivers and lakes?
Name its principal metals and minerals.
Into what provinces is Bavaria divided?
What are the names of its chief cities?

Describe Munich.
Describe Ratisbon and Augsburg.
Describe its manufactures and commerce.
What is the religion of Bavaria?
What is the state of education in Bavaria?
Describe its constitution.

SAXONY.

Of what was the kingdom of Saxony founded?
How is it divided?
Of what does its surface consist?
What sort of climate has Saxony?
How is it bounded?
Name the chief river of Saxony, and its tributaries.
What are its chief natural productions?
Describe its forests.
What are the domestic and wild animals of Saxony?
What particular birds are numerous in Saxony?
Name its metals and minerals.
Into what provinces is Saxony divided?
What are the names of its chief cities?
Describe Dresden.
For what is Leipsic chiefly noted?
Describe the principal manufactures of Saxony.
Describe its religion and education.
Describe its constitution.
What place does it hold in the German Diet?

SARDINIA.

What are the component parts of Sardinia?
Describe Piedmont and its productions.
Describe Genoa and its productions.
Describe Sardinia and its productions.
How are the continental territories of Sardinia divided?
How is its government administered in its various divisions?
Name its chief cities.
Describe Turin.
Describe Genoa.
Describe Florence.
What is said of Cagliari?
Describe Leghorn.

What are the staple products and manufactures of Sardinia?
What is the religion of Sardinia?
Describe the government of the Sardinian states.

FRANCE.

Describe the position and boundaries of France.
What are the names of its chief mountains?
What are the names of its rivers?
What is the general character of its soil and climate?
Enumerate its various productions.
Tell me something about its animals.
Characterize its poultry, birds, and wild fowl.
Describe its reptiles and insects.
Describe its fisheries.
Describe its minerals and metals.
How is France politically divided?
What are the names of its principal cities?
Give some description of Paris.
Tell me all you can about the other cities of France.
What are the chief articles of manufacture in France?
What are its exports and imports?
What are the colonial possessions of France?
What religions are professed in France?
In what state is education in France?
Describe its government.

SWITZERLAND.

Where is Switzerland situated, and what is its extent?
Describe the surface of this country.
Name the rivers and lakes of Switzerland.
Describe its climate.
What are its chief agricultural productions?
What are its chief fruits?
What are its chief vegetables?
What are its chief timber trees?
Tell me something about its natural history.
Name its minerals.
Into how many states is Switzerland divided?
What are the names of its chief cities?
Relate what you know of these cities.
Describe its manufactures.

How is Switzerland divided as regards religion?
What was the effect of this division in ancient times?
Give information concerning Tell's chapel.
What is the state of education in Switzerland?
To what profession are the Swiss inclined?

THE IONIAN ISLES.

What are the names of the Ionian Islands?
Where are they situated?
Describe Corfu.
What are its productions?
Of what does its cattle consist?
Describe Cephalonia.
What are its chief productions?
What are its domestic animals, &c.?
Describe Zante.
What are its natural productions?
State what you know concerning its inhabitants.
Describe Santa Maura.
What are its productions?
What cattle does it contain?
Describe Ithaca.
What are its productions?
Describe Paxo.
Describe Cerigo.
What are its productions?
What cattle does it possess?
What is the name of the capital of the Ionian Islands?
What are its principal exports?
What is the religion of the people of these islands?
What the state of education in the Ionian Islands?
Describe the constitution of these islands.

THE GERMAN STATES.

Of what do the German States consist?
How is the Grand Duchy of Baden bounded?
What is the character of the country?
What are the names of its chief mountains and rivers?
What are the names of its chief towns?
Describe its religion and education.
Describe its government.

Describe the situation and extent of Hesse Cassel.
What are its productions?
What are the chief towns of Lower Hesse?
Describe its religion and education.
Describe its constitution.
Describe Hesse Darmstadt.
Describe Hesse Homburg.
How is the Grand Duchy of Nassau bounded?
What are its productions?
From what source is the chief wealth of the inhabitants derived?
How is the duchy divided?
What are the names of its chief towns?
What kind of constitution does it possess?
Say what you know of the principalities of Saxony.
Describe the Duchy of Brunswick and its productions.
Describe its capital.
Give particulars concerning its religion, education, and constitution.
Describe the Grand Duchy of Mecklenburg.
What are its chief productions?
How is Mecklenburg divided?
Describe the Grand Duchy of Oldenburg.
What are its natural productions, &c.?
Describe its capital.
Describe its religion, education, and constitution.

THE ITALIAN STATES.

How is Italy bounded?
How is it divided?
What states do the North and South of Italy contain?
Describe its climate.
Name its productions.
Describe the position, extent, and divisions of the Papal State.
Say what you know about Rome.
Describe the constitution of the Papal State.
What is the state of its religion and education?
Characterize its agriculture and manufactures.
Tell what you have learned concerning the Pope.
How is the Grand Duchy of Tuscany bounded?
Describe its surface and productions.

How is it divided?
What are the names of its chief towns?
Describe Florence, Pisa, and Arezzo.
Describe the manufactures of Tuscany.
Describe the Duchy of Lucca.
Name its chief towns.
Describe that of Lucca.
Describe the Duchy of Parma.
Name its chief towns.
Describe that of Parma.
Describe the Duchy of Modena.
Name its chief towns.
Describe Modena.
What of Reggio?
What are the manufactures of Modena?
Describe the Duchy of Massa.
Describe the Republic of St. Marino.

GREECE.

Describe the kingdom of Greece.
Name its principal productions.
Name its principal Islands.
Give some particulars concerning the ancient cities of Greece.
Tell me all you can about Athens.
Describe the resources of Greece.
What are its religion and government?
How and when was Greece erected into a kingdom?

Book the Fourth.

ASIA.

Describe the situation and extent of Asia.
For what is Asia particularly celebrated?
Describe its surface.
Describe its climate.
Describe its productions and scenery.
What are its domestic animals?
What its wild animals?
Describe its ornithology.
Describe its reptiles, fishes, and insects.

Mention its metals and minerals.
Particularize its population.
Name the principal countries of Asia.

ASIATIC TURKEY.

Of what countries does Asiatic Turkey consist?
Describe the whole region.
How is Asia Minor bounded?
Describe its surface.
What is the name of its chief river?
Describe the climate of Asia Minor.
How is Syria bounded?
How is it divided by geographers?
Describe its divisions.
Describe its climate and productions.
Name the domestic animals of Syria.
Name its beasts of prey.
Describe its birds and insects.
Name its metals and minerals.
Describe ancient Assyria.
Describe the chief features of its vegetation.
Describe its climate.
How are the Turkish dominions in Asia divided?
Name its most remarkable cities.
Give some particulars of these cities.

ARABIA.

Where is Arabia situated?
What is its calculated extent?
How is it divided?
Describe Arabia Petræa.
Describe Arabia Felix.
Describe Arabia Deserta.
Describe the climate of Arabia.
For what animal is Arabia celebrated?
Name its chief domestic animals.
Name its wild animals.
Mention some of its birds.
What mines existed, and what mines still exist, in Arabia?
Name the chief cities of Arabia.
Give particulars of these cities.

Of what tribes does the population chiefly consist?
In what manner do the true Arabs live?
What are their nobles called?
What are the chief occupations of the Bedouin Arabs?
What is their general character?

ASIATIC RUSSIA.

Describe the situation of Asiatic Russia, or Siberia.
Describe its extent.
What are the names of its chief mountains and rivers?
What is the character of its surface?
What are its domestic and wild animals?
How is Siberia divided for administrative purposes?
What are the names of its chief cities?
Describe them.
Describe its manufactures and commerce.
Describe its population.
Under whose rule is its population?

TARTARY.

Where is Tartary situated?
Describe the countries of which Independent Tartary is composed.
Describe its boundaries.
Where is Turkistan situated?
Name its chief towns.
Describe the country of the Khirgis.
Describe its inhabitants.
How are they governed?
What is their religion?
In what does their chief wealth consist?
Describe Turcomania.
Indicate the geography of Bucharia.
Of what tribes does its population consist?
What are their habits, religion, and government?
Describe Kharisim.
Name its chief town and the amount of its population
Name the principal rivers of Independent Tartary.
Describe its climate.
Name its chief cities.
Describe Samarcand.
Describe Bokhara.

PERSIA.

Where is Persia situated, and what is its extent?
Name its principal mountains and rivers.
What are the names of its chief lakes?
Describe the remaining features of the country.
Describe its climate.
Name its chief productions.
Name the chief domestic animals of Persia.
Name some of its wild animals.
Name some of its birds.
What are its chief minerals and metals?
Describe its population.
How is it divided for the purposes of administration?
Name its chief cities.
Give particulars concerning these cities.
What are the chief manufactures of Persia?
Describe its government.
What religion is professed by the Persians?

BELOOCHISTAN.

How is Beloochistan bounded?
What is the general character of the country?
What is its condition as regards cultivation?
Give some details of its natural history.
Name its chief metals and minerals.
Into what classes are its inhabitants distinguished?
How is the country governed?
Describe its government.

AFGHANISTAN.

Of what extent is Afghanistan?
Describe this country.
What are the names of its chief rivers?
Describe its climate.
Name its chief productions.
Describe its animals and birds.
Name its metals and minerals.
What is the government of Afghanistan?
Name its chief towns.
Describe these towns.

What is the religion of the Afghans?
In what state is education among them?
Describe the government of Afghanistan.

HINDOOSTAN.

What part of India is meant by Hindoostan?
Describe its extent.
How is Hindoostan divided?
Of what countries does Hindoostan Proper consist?
Of what countries does the Deccan consist?
What countries does the peninsula comprise?
Name the chief mountains and rivers of Hindoostan.
How do the Hindoos regard the Ganges?
What are the chief productions of Hindoostan?
Describe its animals.
Of what does its chief mineral riches consist?
By what power is Hindoostan chiefly governed?
What is the population of the British possessions in Hindoostan?
What of the British allies?
What of the independent states?
Name the most remarkable cities of Hindoostan.
Particularize these cities.
What is the government of Hindoostan?
Describe its religion.

CHINA.

Describe the situation and extent of China.
What countries are dependent on China?
How is the surface of China divided?
Describe its mountains.
What is the hill cultivation in China?
What is the great plain of China?
Describe its climate.
Name its chief rivers.
Name its chief animals, domestic and wild.
Describe its ornithology.
Describe its fish.
What reptiles and insects are mentioned?
What are its fruits and flowers?
Name its minerals.
How is China politically divided?

How many cities is China said to contain?
Name its chief cities.
Describe them.
What is the religion of China?
Describe its government.
What is its penal code?

INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES.

Of what countries does India beyond the Ganges consist?
Describe the Birman empire.
Name its chief productions.
Name its chief animals and birds.
Name its metals and minerals.
What are the names of its chief towns?
What is the general character of these towns?
Describe the religion and government of the Birman empire.
Where are Cochin China and Tonquin situated?
What are the names of the capitals of these countries?
What country is united with them?
Describe the situation and productions of Laos.
What is Cambodia?
Describe Siam.
Name its chief productions.
Describe its natural history.
Name its metals and minerals.
Of what is the kingdom of Siam composed?
Name its chief towns.
Characterize its commerce.
Describe the religion and government of Siam.
Where is Malaya situated, and how is it divided?
What are its soil and productions?
What is its natural history?
What are its chief metals?
Name its chief towns.
What is the general character of the Malays?
What is their religion and government?
Describe Aracan.
Where is Assam situated?
For what is this country noted?
For what metals is it noted?
Name its chief productions.
Describe the habitations of the Siamese.

By what tribes is Siam inhabited?
Where is Chittagong situated?
Where is Cassay situated?

JAPAN.

Describe the empire of Japan.
In what state is its agriculture?
Name its chief agricultural productions.
Tell me something about its natural history.
Name its chief metals and minerals.
Describe its chief towns.
Name its principal manufactures.
Describe the religion of the Japanese.
Describe their government.

THE ASIATIC ISLANDS.

Name the principal Asiatic islands.
Describe Borneo.
Of what races does its population consist?
Describe Sumatra.
What are its chief productions?
Name its chief town, and tell me to whom it belongs.
Describe Java.
What people claim its sovereignty and trade?
What are its exports?
What Asiatic islands belong to Spain?
What to the Netherlands?
Describe the Celebes.
How is it divided?
What is the name of its chief town?
Describe the Maldives.
What title does the king assume?
Describe the Lak Divas.
Describe the Andaman and Nicobar islands.

Book the Fifth.

CHAPTER I.—AFRICA.

Describe the situation and extent of Africa.
Name its chief rivers.

What is the characteristic of Northern Africa?
What are the countries north of the Sahara called?
Enumerate its animals.
Describe its ornithology.
Describe its reptiles and insects.
Describe its vegetation.
Name its minerals, &c.
How many inhabitants is it supposed to contain?
How is Africa divided in these pages?
By whom was it first peopled, and what are its present races?

CHAPTER II.—NORTHERN AFRICA.

EGYPT.

How is Egypt bounded?
How is Egypt divided?
Describe the valley of the Nile.
Describe the Delta.
Describe the Libyan Desert.
Describe the Eastern country.
What is the character of the climate and fertility of Egypt?
Name its chief productions.
Name its chief animals.
What mines did ancient Egypt possess?
What mines still exist?
What is the administration of Egypt?
What cities did ancient Egypt possess?
What are the names of its present chief cities?
Describe these cities.
Describe the government of Egypt.
What is the religion of its inhabitants?

BARBARY STATES.

What tract of country does the Barbary States comprise?
What are the names of these States?
Describe Morocco.
What is the character of its climate?
What are its chief productions?
What minerals does it possess?
Of what races are its inhabitants?
Name its chief towns.

Describe these towns.
What is the state of its commerce?
What are its chief exports?
What is its religion, and what the state of education in Morocco?
Describe its government.
Describe Algiers.
What are the names of its principal rivers?
What climate does it possess?
What is its natural history?
By what races is it inhabited?
Describe its principal city.
For what is it memorable?
To what power is Algiers now subjected?
Describe Tunis.
Name its chief productions.
What mines do its mountains contain?
Describe the Tunisenes.
Give an account of Tunis, the capital.
What are the religion and government of the country?
Describe Tripoli.
What are its chief productions?
Name its chief minerals.
Of what races does the population consist?
Describe Tripoli, the capital.
What is the government of the country?
Describe Barca.
What districts are joined to this country?
Where did the temple of Jupiter Ammon stand?
For what towns was it anciently celebrated?
Describe Bled-el-Jeride.
What was part of this country called by Roman writers?

EASTERN AFRICA.

Of what countries does Eastern Africa consist?
Describe Nubia.
What states does it contain?
What animals abound in Nubia?
Describe Abyssinia.
Name its vegetable productions.
Name its animals.
What are the chief manufactures of the Abyssinians?
What is said of the inhabitants of Abyssinia?

What is their religion?
Describe Adel.
What is the name of its chief town?
What is the religion of the country?
Describe Ajan.
Describe Zanguebar.
By what people is Zanguebar inhabited?
What is their religion?
Describe Mozambique.
What are its chief animals?
Under whose dominion is Mozambique?
Describe Mocaranga.
What climate and soil does it possess?
What mines does it contain?
Describe Sofala.
What particular animal traverses its wilds?
To what nation is it tributary?
What precious metal does it produce?
What country named in Scripture have some writers supposed Sofala to be?
Name the other small kingdoms of Eastern Africa.

WESTERN AFRICA.

Of what countries does Western Africa consist?
By what tribes is the Great Desert occupied?
Who explored the kingdoms beyond the Sahara?
Describe them.
Describe Senegambia.
What climate does it possess?
What are its chief productions?
For what are its forest trees used?
Describe its natural history.
Describe its inhabitants.
How many European settlements are in Senegambia?
Describe these settlements.
Where is Guinea situated?
What are the names of the countries along its coast?
How many kingdoms does Guinea contain?
Describe the kingdom of Ashantee.
Describe Dahomey.
Where are the other three kingdoms situated?
How is the country between Benin and the equator governed?

What exports are derived from thence?
What territories are in the tract south of the line?
What are the chief productions of these territories?
What are the names of their principal towns?

SOUTHERN AFRICA.

What countries does Southern Africa comprise?
Describe Caffraria.
Name its principal productions.
Name its chief animals.
What are its chief metals?
What nations occupy Caffraria?
Describe the government of the Caffres.
Describe their religion.
Of what extent is the country of the Hottentots?
What are the names of the tribes by whom it is peopled?
Describe the Hottentot race.
Describe the Betjuana tribes.
In what kind of houses do they live?
How are they governed?
Describe the situation and condition of the Cape of Good Hope.

THE AFRICAN ISLANDS.

Name the principal African islands.
Where is the island of Madagascar situated?
What is the character of its soil and productions?
Name its chief productions.
What animals, &c. does it possess?
What is the nature of its climate?
What are its population and government?
Describe Bourbon and its productions.
What people compose its inhabitants?
Where is the island of Mauritius situated?
In whose possession is it?
What is its population, and what are its chief productions?
Where is the island of Madeira situated?
Of what is it formed?
What climate does it possess?
What are its productions?
What islands compose the Canaries?

What is their formation and fertility?
To whom do they belong?
How are they governed?
Describe the Cape Verde Islands.
Name their chief productions.
Where is the island of St. Helena situated?
Describe this island.
What celebrated conqueror was banished thither?
What are the Cormora islands?
Where is the island of Socotra situated?
What are its chief productions?
What is its population?
What islands are there in the Gulf of Guinea, and to whom do they belong?

Book the Sixth.

CHAPTER I.—AMERICA.

Describe the situation of America.
What is the form of North America, and the extent of its coasts?
Describe further the coast of North America.
Describe the chief mountains of North America.
Describe the chief mountains of South America.
For what is America celebrated?
Name its chief rivers, North and South.
For what else is America celebrated?
Name its most remarkable lakes.
What is the general nature of the climate of North and South America?
What are the animals of North and South America?
What were the original domestic animals of America?
What are the present domestic animals?
Describe its wild animals.
Describe its ornithology.
Describe its reptiles and insects.
Describe its vegetable productions.
Give a description of the native Americans.
Name the chief countries of America.

CHAPTER II.—CANADA.

How is Canada divided?
What is its extent?
Of what does its area consist?
Describe its climate.
What are its natural productions?
Name its minerals.
Characterize its natural history.
Of what races do its inhabitants consist?
Name its chief towns.
How is it governed?

THE UNITED STATES.

How many States does North America comprehend?
How far do they extend?
What are the chief rivers of the United States?
Describe the Falls of Niagara.
Describe the climate and soil of North America.
What are its animals?
What peculiar reptile inspires dread in this country?
From whom are the inhabitants chiefly descended?
What was the cause of their rebellion against their mother country?
When was the first colony planted?
Describe the United States as a nation.
Name the chief towns of the United States.
Describe Washington.
What are the manufactures and commerce of the United States?
What is the state of education in the United States?
Name the religious sects and parties existing in that country.
Describe its form of government.

MEXICO.

How is Mexico bounded?
How is it divided?
To what distant parts do the Mexican territories properly extend?
What are its climate and productions?
Describe its domestic animals.

For what mines is Mexico noted?
Of what races is the Mexican population composed?
How many languages are said to be spoken in the country?
What language is most extensively used?
Into what number of States is Mexico divided?
What are the names of its chief cities?
What are its manufactures and commerce?
Describe the commerce of Mexico?

GUATEMALA.

What is the situation, and what are the boundaries of Guatemala?
What number of States and inhabitants does it contain?
What are the names of the chief towns?
Describe Guatemala.

COLOMBIA.

What are the situation, boundaries, and extent of Colombia?
What is said of its mountains, plains, and rivers?
What of its climate?
Name its chief rivers.
Name its most remarkable mountains.
What is the peculiar characteristic of these mountains?
How is Colombia divided?
Of what do these republics consist?
Name the chief towns of these republics.
Of what races are the inhabitants?
What religion is professed by the civilized inhabitants?

PERU.

Describe the situation, boundaries, and extent of Peru.
Describe the chief features of its surface.
What articles of commerce do its mountain forests produce?
Describe its climate.
Mention its chief productions.
Describe its natural history.
What minerals does Peru produce?
Characterize its inhabitants.
Into what departments is Peru divided?
Name the chief towns and port of Peru.
Describe Lima and Cuzco.

What are its manufactures and commerce?
Describe its constitution.
What is the religion professed?

BOLIVIA.

Tell me the origin of the name of this country.
How is Bolivia bounded?
What country does Bolivia resemble?
In what respects?
In what respects does its ornithology differ from that of Peru?
What are its minerals?
Describe its inhabitants.
Into how many departments is Bolivia divided?
Name its chief cities
What are its chief exports and manufactures?

LA PLATA.

How is La Plata bounded?
Describe the character of its surface.
Describe the nature of its climate.
Mention its chief productions.
Name its domestic animals.
Detail its natural history.
Name its minerals.
Describe its population.
Into how many republics is La Plata divided?
In what condition are these republics?
Name the principal cities.
Describe Buenos Ayres.
What are the trade and commerce of La Plata?

CHILI.

Describe the boundaries and extent of Chili.
What is the name of its mountains?
How many rivers flow through this country?
What is the nature of its climate?
To what dispensation is it subject?
What are its chief vegetable productions?
What are its chief productions?

What are its chief fruits?
What is said of its forests?
Name its domestic animals.
Name its minerals.
Describe its population.
How is the country divided?
Name its chief towns.
What is said of Valparaiso?
What is said of the commerce of Chili?
Describe its constitution.

MONTE VIDEO.

What are the boundaries and extent of this country?
Of what country is it one of the republics?
What does its code resemble?
Name its chief towns.
Describe its commerce.
Name its religion.

BRAZIL.

Describe the position and extent of Brazil.
Describe its surface.
Name its mountains and rivers.
Name the largest of the rivers.
Describe the Cataract of Parana.
Describe its climate and seasons.
Mention its chief productions.
What fruits of Europe succeed best in Brazil?
What articles of export do its forests produce?
Name its chief minerals.
Characterize its natural history.
Describe its inhabitants.
Into how many provinces is Brazil divided?
Name its chief cities.
How are these cities situated, and what population do they contain?
What population does the whole country contain?
What is its commerce?
Describe its constitution.
What religion is professed by the Brazilians?

GUIANA.

How is Guiana situated, and what are its boundaries?
What is its extent?
Name its chief mountains and rivers.
Describe its climate and seasons.
Characterize its fertility and productions.
Describe its natural history.
Of what inhabitants does the population of Guiana consist?
Among what foreign powers is the country divided?
Describe the portion each of these powers possesses.
Describe the native Indians.
Name the chief towns of Guiana.
Describe the commerce of the country.
How is Guiana governed?

PATAGONIA

How is Patagonia situated?
What is its area?
How is it divided?
Describe these regions.
What is the character of its soil?
What of its seasons and climate?
What of its mountain forests?
What is its natural history?
Name its chief minerals.
Describe the Patagonians.

WEST INDIAN ISLANDS.

Where are the West Indian Islands situated?
What is the name of the first of these from the north?
To whom does it belong?
Which is the next in order?
To whom does that belong?
What island is southward of Cuba?
To whom does that belong?
Where is Hayti situated?
What is the government of Hayti?
What are its extent, climate, and productions?
What is the name of its capital?
Which is the oldest European establishment in America?
By whom was it founded?

What are the names of the other West Indian Islands, and to whom do they belong?

Book the Seventh.

AUSTRALIA.

What countries are designated by the name Australia?
Of what does this continent consist?
Where is it situated, and what is its extent?
What islands belong to Australia?
What is their position?
What parts of Australia have been explored?
Describe these parts.
How is the interior of the country divided by geographers?
What varieties does the soil of its plains present?
Of what character are its rivers?
Name its chief rivers.
Describe its climate.
Describe its seasons.
Describe the peculiarities of its vegetation.
What are its mineral riches?
Describe its mammalogy.
How many species are peculiar to Australia?
Name some of the most remarkable.
What is the most remarkable fact connected with Australian ornithology?
Describe its birds.
Describe its reptiles and fishes.
To what races do the natives of Australia belong?
What part of Australia does the Malay race occupy?
Where does the Australian negro race exist?
Characterize these negroes.
What single nation has planted colonies in Australia?
What are the names of the British possessions?
In what parts have settlements been made?
In what part is a new colony to be founded?
What prospect does the Australian continent afford for the surplus population of England?

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